

UNIT 1 DEFINITION AND CONCEPT OF PERSONALITY AND PERSONALITY DEVELOPMENT

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1.0 INTRODUCTION

For laypersons, the term personality is often understood in terms of being good looking, attractive etc. They go by the impression created by the person concerned. The ability to talk and interact with others pleasantly in addition to being good looking, would make others say that the person concerned has a good personality. Persons who do not have good looks or not well dressed or do not interact adequately are considered to have poor personality. But scientifically this is not a true concept of personality. In fact, psychologists consider any attempt to define personality in terms of social attractiveness inadequate because of two reasons, first it limits the number and types of behaviour considered important and worthy for incorporation into the study of personality. Second, such notion carries the absurd implication that some people who have unique abilities and temperament traits are devoid of having a personality. In this unit we will be dealing with the definition of personality as put forward by psychologists. Definition of personality will be presented as given by Gordon Allport and there will be a discussion of the concept of personality development. Under Personality development, various factors contributing to the same will be discussed including the biological, psychological and environmental factors.

1.1 OBJECTIVES

After the reading this unit, you will be able to:

- Define personality and describe the nature of personality;
- Elucidate the concept of personality;
- List the characteristic features of personality;
- Explain the factors that contribute to the development of personality; and
- Identify the environmental factors that influence personality development.

1.2 DEFINITION AND CONCEPT OF PERSONALITY

The term personality is often understood in terms of social attractiveness. A good personality is considered to be one who impresses other people and who has the ability to get on well with others. Those who do not possess such ability are said to have relatively poor personality. However if one considers personality from a scientific point of view, being attractive to others is not a true concept of personality. In fact, psychologists consider any attempt to define personality in terms of social attractiveness as inadequate because of two reasons, (i) it limits the number and types of behaviours considered important and worthy for incorporation into the study of personality and (ii) such a notion implies that some people who have unique abilities, temperament and traits are devoid of having a personality.

Psychologists have attempted to explain the concept of personality in terms of individuality and consistency. We often observe that people differ a great deal in the ways they think, feel and act and that too in different or even same situations. This distinctive pattern of behaviour helps one to define one's identity. Commenting upon the notion of individuality, it has been said that each of us in certain respects is like all other persons, like some other persons and like no other person who has been in the past or will be existing in future (Kluckhohn & Murray, 1953).

Another important notion in defining the concept of personality is consistency. In other words it can be stated that the concept of personality also rests on the observation that a person seems to behave somewhat consistently in different situations over different time. From this observation of perceived consistency comes the notion of personality traits that determine the way of responding to one's world.

Combining these notions of individuality and consistency, personality can be defined as the distinctive and unique ways in which each individual thinks, feels and acts, which characterise a person's response throughout life. In other words, it can be said that personality refers to all those relatively permanent traits, dispositions or characteristics within the person that give some measure of consistency to the person's behaviour. These traits may be unique, common to some groups or shared by the entire species but their pattern will be different from individual to individual.

The thoughts, feelings and actions that are perceived as reflecting an individual's personality typically have three characteristics

- i) Thoughts, feelings and actions are considered as behavioural components of identity that make distinction between individuals
- ii) Behaviours are viewed as being primarily caused by internal rather than environmental factors.
- iii) The behaviours of the person seem to have organisation and structure.

Behaviours of an individual seem to fit together in a meaningful way. It is to be kept in mind that the nature of behaviours is dynamic and there may occur changes in the organisation and structure of behaviours over a period of time. It is in this sense that Allport (1937, 1961), defined personality as the dynamic organisation within the person of the psychophysical systems that determine the unique adjustments to one's environment. This suggests that there is an inner personality that guides and directs individual's behaviour. Allport the man who has done more than anyone to shed light on the myriad meaning of the term personality analysed 50 definitions of personality, and finally put forward his own definition of personality mentioned above.

For better distinct understanding of the term personality, it is essential that it should not be confused with character and temperament. While the term character refers to the value judgements, which are made about a person's moral values or ethical behaviour, the term temperament refers to the inborn enduring characteristics such as adaptability, irritability etc. However, both character and temperament are vital parts of personality.

Self Assessment Questions 1

- 1) Who has said that personality is the dynamic organisation of traits?
 - a) Eysenck
 - b) Allport
 - c) Murray
 - d) None of them.
- 2) Which of the followings are regarded as component of behavioural identity of personality?
 - a) Thoughts
 - b) Feelings
 - c) Actions
 - d) All.
- 3) Human behaviours are largely determined by:
 - a) Internal factors
 - b) Environmental factors
 - c) Both
 - d) Neither.
- 4) Which one is the inborn enduring characteristics of the personality?
 - a) Traits
 - b) Character
 - c) Temperament
 - d) None of these.
- 5) Personality has been understood as largely the combination of:
 - a) Trait and temperament
 - b) Consistency and individuality
 - c) Value and attitude
 - d) Character and temperament.

1.3 PERSONALITY DEVELOPMENT

The development of personality has been a topic of interest for the personality psychologists right from the time the term came into existence. Psychologists have tried to identify those factors which directly or indirectly influence the growth and development of personality. Although there are a large number of factors, which influence the development of personality, such factors have been broadly grouped into three general categories and these are given below.

- 1) Biological factors,
- 2) Psychological factors,
- 3) Environmental factors.

Since these factors tend to determine the way personality develops they are also called as determinants of personality. These three sets of factors are discussed here in detail.

1.3.1 Biological Factors

Biological determinants also called as physical determinants emphasise that physique and body functioning are directly responsible for personality development. Some of these factors are: (i) Body build (ii) Physical attractiveness (iii) Homeostasis (iv) Physical defects (v) Health conditions.

- i) **Body build:** Body build influences personality directly by determining what an individual can and cannot do, as well as what the individual's reaction will be to all those whose body builds are superior or inferior.

Some of the known body builds are (i) ectomorph (ii) endomorph, and (iii) mesomorph.

Ectomorphs are persons who are tall and thin in their body builds. They have been generally found to be superior to Endomorphs who have round and soft body builds. The superiority is especially in speed and endurance. Likewise, mesomorphs who are strong and muscular in their body builds have been found to be superior to both ectomorphs and endomorphs in activities like speed, endurance and agility.

It has also been reported that body build of an individual affects the person's self-concept, which is an important constituents of personality. This self concept can be favourable or unfavourable. For instance if the body build allows the person to do things that are socially desirable, prestigious and better than others it would contribute to positive self concept about oneself. On the other hand if it allows the person to do things which are not favourable or positive or ends up in failure, it would lead to poor or negative self concept.

- ii) **Physical attractiveness:** Physical attractiveness is another physical component that affects the development of personality. An attractive person of any age is more appealing than a person who is unattractive. Brislin & Lewis (1968) have commented that it is very much rewarding to be with someone who is physically attractive. Generally, it has been found that the people tend to be more tolerant in their attitudes and judgements of an attractive person. That is the reason why a pretty child is less likely to be punished or criticised for troublesome behaviour than a simple looking

homely child. In business circle, an attractive worker may be less efficient and less conscientious than an unattractive worker and yet, the attractive worker is relatively more likely to get promotion sooner than the unattractive one.

- iii) **Homeostasis:** Homeostasis is another important determinant. It refers to the maintenance of a stable internal environment through relatively having normal temperature, normal level of blood sugar, normal level of blood pressure, proper water balance, etc. When any of these conditions is upset, disequilibrium starts and disturbances in homeostatis results. Homeostatis or disturbances in it, has a significant impact upon personality both directly or indirectly.

Directly, the effect of homeostatis is seen in relaxed, controlled and socially acceptable behaviour patterns of the person who is feeling well both physically and psychologically. When the level of homeostasis is disturbed, behaviours like irritability, indigestion, insomnia and other uncomfortable states often result.

Disturbances in homestasis

Disturbances in homestasis also affects personality indirectly. It affects personality through the way the person reacts to what he thinks and believes to be the attitudes of some significant people in his life. For example, a person who is above average in physical stature in comparison to his age and sex group, because of excessive hormonal discharge will respond to his superior size in one of the two ways. If his superior size is viewed favourably by others, his reaction will be positive and therefore, disturbance in homeostasis will thus have a favourable impact upon the development of personality. But if his size proves to be a social handicap and others ridicule it, his reactions will be negative and the effect in the disturbance of homeostasis will be unfavourable.

Some studies have very clearly shown that development of personality is affected by homeostasis or lack of it. For example, when the blood sugar goes above the normal range, depressive mental states tend to follow. Severe deficiency in vitamin B complex results in increased level of emotionality and depression. High blood pressure frequently produces neuroticism. Anoxia or reduction in the amount of oxygen in the inspired air, as it happens in asthma, causes emotional outbursts, mental confusion and self-criticism.

- iv) **Physical defects:** Physical defects are another determiners. The first scientific study showing the impact of physical defect upon personality has come from Alfred Adler's theory of organ inferiority. Today several studies have been conducted to examine the direct and indirect impact of physical defects upon personality. Obesity is one of the popular physical defect. Obesity proves to be a handicap in social relationship because the obese person is unable to keep up with his contemporaries. Obesity also affects the personality indirectly. Awareness of unfavourable attitude towards obesity makes the person feel not only inferior but also they develop the feeling of being socially scorned. Not only this, some researchers have also pointed out that massively obese individuals become more disturbed perhaps because of less self-satisfaction and cumulative adverse comment from others.

Health conditions

Health conditions also affect the development of personality. At all ages and in both sexes good health is considered as a personality asset and poor health is a liability. There are ample evidences to support it. Many personality changes result from poor health conditions and tend to continue even after the illness has been cured or its severity has been lessened. This is especially true during childhood when the personality is in the formative stages. Many personality changes and disturbances in adolescents and adults have their root in illnesses during the early years of childhood (Martin & Vincent, 1960).

It has also been found that persons having illness like diabetes, etc., experience tension and anxiety which causes frustration in dealing with the demands of social environments. As a result of frustration, they become aggressive and often turn their aggression towards others. Physical disturbances like the female irregular menstrual cycle often lead to emotional instability accompanied by a tendency to be irritable and depressed. This increases their level of emotionality and the heightened emotionality is reflected in poor social adjustment and decrease in social activities, ultimately affecting women's self-concept and the attitudes towards other people.

Self Assessment Questions 2

- 1) Tall and thin body builds are the characteristics of:
 - a) Mesomorph
 - b) Ectomorph
 - c) Endomorph
 - d) None of these.
- 2) Homeostatis refers to:
 - a) Disturbances in the internal balance of the body
 - b) Maintenance of a stable internal environment
 - c) Maintenance of even rate of oxygen utilisation
 - d) Maintenance of normal level of blood sugar and blood pressure.
- 3) Homeostasis affects the self-concept:
 - a) Only in a positive way
 - b) Only in a negative way
 - c) Both positively and negatively
 - d) Has no effect.
- 4) Which is Not the physical determinants of personality?
 - a) Homeostasis
 - b) Physical attractiveness
 - c) Body builds
 - d) Gender
- 5) High blood pressure is generally associated with causation of:
 - a) Neuroticism
 - b) Depression
 - c) General nervousness
 - d) None of these.

1.3.2 Psychological Factors

Several psychological factors tend to determine the development of personality. Among those factors the following can be specially discussed because of their importance. These include:

- i) Intellectual determinants
- ii) Emotional determinants
- iii) Self disclosure
- iv) Aspiration and achievements

The above are being discussed in the following paragraphs.

1.3.2.1 Intellectual Determinants

These are one of the important factors which influence the development of personality. Researchers are of view that intellectual capacities influence personality through various kinds of adjustments in life and indirectly through the judgments other persons make of the individual on the basis of the person's intellectual achievements.

This judgment in turn affects the evaluation and consequently the development of personality. Intellectually bright men and women make better personal and social adjustments than those of average or below average intelligence.

Several studies bear testimony to the fact that bright men and women are generally introspective, thoughtful, creative, adventuresome and have strong concern with problems, meanings and values. They are found to show a wider interest especially in the theoretical and aesthetic areas. Since they have greater and stronger mental ability, they have better control over themselves.

However, having very superior intelligence affects personality development unfavourably because it creates special problems which are not encountered by those persons who are merely bright. These various problems result in the development of a personality pattern, which is characterised by the traits like negativism, intolerance, habits of chicanery, emotional conflicts, solitary pursuit, self-sufficiency, dominance, etc. Evidences also have provided support to the fact that intellectual capacities also influence development of values, morality and human.

1.3.2.2 Emotional Determinants

These are other important factors that shape the development of personality. Emotions are considered important personality determinants because they affect personal and social adjustment. Research has shown that several aspects of emotions like dominant emotions, emotional balance, emotional deprivation, excessive love and affection, emotional expressions, emotional catharsis and emotional stress directly and indirectly affect the development of personality.

Some people experience a predominance of pleasant emotions while others experience a predominance of unpleasant emotions. This predominance affect the development of personality. The cheerful persons are usually happy and even when they are in a depressive mood they can see the brighter side of things. Likewise, since apprehensive persons are full of fear, they even when there is a happy or enjoyable situation, feel depressed and remain afraid. Emotional balance which is a condition in which pleasant emotions outweigh the unpleasant emotion, is considered essential to good social and personal adjustment.

When the person encounters with obstacles and problems, unpleasant experiences like fear, anger, envy and other negative emotions are aroused. As a consequence,

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the person's adjustments are adversely affected. Such conditions in the long run are responsible for development of many pathological traits in the person. Also emotional deprivation of pleasant emotions like love, happiness and curiosity also has an impact, which gradually leads to poor personal and social adjustment.

Research has revealed that impact of emotional deprivation depends upon the extent to which a person is emotionally deprived in addition to the duration of emotional deprivation as well as upon the age at which it occurs. One of the common effects of deprivation of love and affection is the development of emotional insecurity. Much of adolescent and adult rebellion against authority stems from emotional insecurity which has its origin in unstable affectional relationship with parents and other members of family during early childhood years.

1.3.2.3 Excessive Love and Affection

This also has psychologically negative effect. Sigmund Freud had earlier cautioned that too much parental love and affection awakens a disposition for neurotic disorders, spoils the child and makes the individual a problematic adolescent. Strecker (1956) has pointed out that excessive mothering, that is, overprotective mothers turn their sons and daughters into immature and dependent adults. Emotional expression, that is, how the person expresses emotion also affects the development of personality. If the person is able to express emotions in a socially approved manner, that person would be judged favourably and this provides a good mirror image of the self. Such emotional expression produces a better feeling both physically and mentally because homeostasis can be restored.

Sanctions, control over the overt expression of emotions is often necessary to avoid social disapproval. However, repression of emotions like anger, fear, jealousy, and envy makes the individual gloomy and morbid which ultimately produces behaviour like extreme laziness, lack of interest in people, vacillation of mood etc. Emotional Catharsis (release of unexpressed emotions) also contributes to the development of good adjustment. Release of pent up emotions allows for physical and mental homeostasis to be restored. As a consequence, the person can judge oneself in a more realistic way.

1.3.2.4 Self-disclosure

Self disclosure is considered basic to mental health and such disclosure helps to bring about a healthy personality pattern which is a guarantee for a socially desirable and favourable reactions from others. Emotional stress expressed in the form of anxiety, frustration, jealousy and envy also affect the development of personality. A person who suffers from emotional stress makes good personal and social adjustments. Intense emotional stress may motivate the person to go to excesses in hope of being relieved from it. For example, the person may resort to overeating and using drugs to dull the intense feeling of insecurity caused by emotional stress. It has been reported that women who experience greater degree of emotional stress during menstrual period, are found to develop depressive tendencies. Psychologists have shown that people with low self-esteem are more adversely affected by emotional stress than those with high self-esteem.

1.3.2.5 Aspiration and Achievements

These also have an effect on the development of personality. Aspiration means a longing for and striving for something higher than one's present status. Thus aspirations are the ego-involved goals that persons set for themselves. The more ego-involved the aspirations are, the more will be the impact upon behaviour and therefore, greater will be the impact upon personality. There may be various forms of aspirations such as positive aspiration (to achieve success), negative aspiration (to avoid failure), realistic aspiration (within the range of the person's capacity), unrealistic aspirations (beyond the capacity of the person), remote aspirations (to achieve a goal in the remote future) or immediate aspirations (to achieve a goal in the near future).

The motivating power of aspiration varies. In general, remote and realistic aspirations do provide stronger motivating forces than immediate and unrealistic aspirations. Negative aspirations are considered weaker in providing motivating strength than positive aspirations.

Level of aspiration, that is, the discrepancy between the goal an individual has achieved and the goal the person hopes to reach, affects the personality in terms of the size of the discrepancy. When the size of discrepancy is large, the person's self-concept is severely damaged especially if the person fails to achieve the goal. Not only the individual will judge self as failure but others will also judge the person as a failure in particular if others know about the person's goal and that goal had not been achieved.

Research studies have also shown that high aspirations are not necessarily a source of damage to the self-concept. They may be a source of motivation and pleasure. They may be a kind of wishful thinking that will not cause any damage to personality so long as it remains a form of fun and play.

1.3.2.6 Achievements

These are another related factor that determine the development of personality. Achievement can be evaluated objectively by comparing one's performance with those of one's peers and subjectively, by comparing the person's achievement with the level of aspiration. Success and failure are the two different attitudes of the person towards achievement. If the person is pleased with own achievement, the achievement will be considered a success and this has a favourable impact upon the self-concept. However if the person's attitude towards achievement is negative, then the achievement will not be considered a success but a failure. Such persons will feel dissatisfied and miserable and in turn their self concept will be adversely affected. Persons who feel that they have been successful remain satisfied with themselves and appear to be happy.

Besides building a favourable self-concept, achievement also raises the person's self-esteem and increases the level of self-confidence so that the individual can solve the many new problem of the future successfully. In addition to the personal satisfaction that a person derives from achieving the goal successfully, the achievement ensures that the person is appropriate in all the actions that are taken up, which in turn produce a stabilising impact upon the behaviour. Therefore, a successful person tends to be more relaxed than a person who has experiences of failure.

1.3.2.7 Goal Setting

Experimental evidences have shown that one of the most important effect that success has upon the person is that the individual becomes more realistic about goal setting. Such persons would asset their goal to a point where they have reasonable chances of reaching. This behaviour is an obvious characteristic of intelligenct, well-adjusted people than of those who are poorly adjusted.

Success enhances self-concept by increasing the person's prestige in the eyes of others. This enhances social acceptance and strengthens the individual's self-concept. But too much success during early years of life may, in fact, weakens the person's motivation to do one's best. It may cause the person to loose some of the new motivations which can be generated by early achievement. Extraordinary achievement even may prove to be more harmful than helpful to social relationship and not only that, it may arouse jealousy and resentment among those persons who are socially related to the person but somehow less successful.

Failure is another constituent of achievement. It is always ego-deflating. Failure undermines the self-confidence and self-esteem. Gradually, it destroys the person's belief that she or he can do something to achieve and this, in effect, weakens the motive to achieve even those things which are within his or her capability. Severe and repeated failure causes stress, anxiety and tension. Sometimes such repeated failures cause so intense stress and anxiety that it produces psychosomatic illness or leads to a defeatist attitude, which strengthens the person's belief in his or her inadequacy and intensifies the poor personal and social adjustment. Research have revealed that one of the most damaging aspects of failure is somehow not achieving the desired goal and social recognition, especially when the person hoped to do so. This sense of dissatisfaction is intensified by the realisation that others with whom the person has competed, have achieved the success much earlier than him or her. Under such conditions, the impact upon the self concept is highly unfavourable.

By contrast, one of the greatest source of satisfaction is to achieve success, recognition and prestige much earlier than anticipated and earlier than one's competitors. This condition has favourable impact upon the self-concept. Sometimes it may be so much favourable that it may lead to the delusion of grandeur and superiority complex and this condition, in the long term, may counteract favourable social judgement and prove damaging to the self-concept.

Self Assessment Questions 3

- 1) Markedly superior intelligence leads to a personality pattern which is characterised by :
 - a) negativism
 - b) Intolerance
 - c) emotional conflicts
 - d) All the above.
- 2) Which one of the followings is known as mental health insurance ?
 - a) Emotional balance
 - b) Tolerance
 - c) Envy tolerance
 - d) None of these.
- 3) Emotional starvation occurs due to :
 - a) Emotional deprivation
 - b) Deprivation of love
 - c) Emotional imbalance
 - d) None of these.

- 4) Which one qualifies to be called as emotional stress ?
 - a) a specific state of heightened emotionality
 - b) a generalised state of heightened emotionality
 - c) a generalised state of emotional imbalance
 - d) none of these above condition.
- 5) Who are more adversely affected by stress ?
 - a) people with high self-esteem
 - b) people with high emotional catharsis
 - c) people with low self-esteem
 - d) people with poor emotional catharsis.

1.3.3 Environmental Factors

Besides physical and psychological factors, some environmental factors have been isolated and shown to have a significant impact upon the development of personality. Under environmental determinants, the following four sets of factors have been primarily emphasised :

1.3.3.1 Social Acceptance

These are one of the major environmental determinants. Every person lives in a social group, which judges the person's behaviour in terms of the person's conformity to group expectations regarding proper performance behaviour and appropriate role playing. Thus social judgement serve as basis for self-evaluation. In this way, the social group tends to influence the development of self-concept.

The degree of influence the social group has on personality development depends not alone on how well accepted the individual is but also on how much importance social acceptance has for the individual. If the person places more value on group acceptance, that person will be more willing to be influenced by the group. Persons who are widely accepted and liked by the group, are likely to respond in a congenial and friendly spirit than those who experience hostility, disregard and rejection in the group.

In fact, how much influence social acceptance has on behaviour depends upon two conditions: how much security a person has in his/her status in the group and what importance he/she attaches to the social acceptance. If the person feels fully secure in the status, which would make the person free to act as he/she wishes and will not be greatly influenced by suggestions from others. Likewise, if the person attaches more value to the social acceptance, he/she will also be more susceptible to be in line with the group members.

Persons whose social acceptance is very high, they are generally more outgoing, more flexible, more active and daring than those who are only moderately socially accepted or moderately popular. However, such persons often fail to establish close relationship with people. They also fail to show emotional warmth which is considered essential to close and intimate personal relationship. This sense of aloofness usually comes from a feeling of superiority.

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One extreme opposite of social acceptance is social isolation. If a person develops the feelings of rejection due to social isolation when in fact they want to be accepted, would develop the feeling of resentment against those who have rejected them. Such people are often depressed, sad and unhappy. They may develop sour-grapes attitude towards social activities. Such social rejection may lead the persons to become juvenile delinquents or criminals in the long run. Researchers have further shown that if early social experiences of the persons are favourable, they are likely to become social and if their experiences are unfavourable, they are likely to develop an unsocial or antisocial personality.

1.3.3.2 Social Deprivation

This is another environmental factor, which is said to influence the development of personality in massive and significant way. Social deprivation means being deprived of opportunities for various types of social contacts including love and affection. Social deprivation causes social isolation which has an adverse effect on personality. Social deprivation has proved most damaging for two age groups—the very young and the elderly. The young children who are deprived of contacts with parents / guardians fail to develop healthy and normal personality. Their behaviour is socially disapproved and they are also unfavourably judged by others.

Social deprivation in elderly people make them self-bound and selfish, which gradually lead to unfavourable social and self judgements. It has also been observed that social deprivation is far more damaging to people who want and also need social contacts for happiness than those who are self-sufficient or who voluntarily withdraw. For example, when elderly persons voluntarily decide on their own to withdraw from social activities, they are far happier and relatively well adjusted in comparison to those whose withdrawal is involuntary. If social deprivation is extensive and prolonged, it gradually leads to unhealthy social attitudes and mental illness.

1.3.3.3 Educational Factors

Another important factor, which influences the development of personality is the educational factors. Schools, colleges and teachers have significant impact upon the individual's development of personality. The impact of educational institution upon personality development is largely determined by the students' attitude towards school and colleges, towards peers, towards teachers and also toward the value of education. When these attitudes are favourable, the students usually enjoy their academic activities and have a warm and friendly relationship with teachers and their peers. This has a very favourable impact upon the development of personality by producing stronger sense of self-confidence and self-esteem.

The reverse is true when there is unfavourable attitudes amongst students towards education and educational institutions, teachers and peers etc. . Research studies have further revealed that if the students are physically and psychologically ready to enter the school or colleges, their attitude tend to be far more favourable. Attitude towards educational institution is greatly influenced by emotional climate of the institution, which affect the level of motivation, students' classroom behaviour and their general emotional reactions. Through these various behavioural patterns, the emotional climate of the educational institution affects the students' self-evaluation and the evaluation others make of them.

Another important factor of educational determinants that affect personality is student-teacher relationship, which is largely dependent upon the teacher's treatment of the students, upon students' attitude toward particular teachers and on their teaching as well as the disciplinary techniques used by the teachers including the cultural stereotypes of teachers as a group. These attitudes, in turn, affect the quality of the student's academic work which becomes the basis of evaluation of self and social evaluation. Teacher student relationship affect the students' personality through its impact upon students' motivation for academic achievement. When the students see that their relationship with the teacher is warm and friendly, their achievements are far better than when they perceive the relationship as hostile, punitive and rejecting. This boosts their self-concept by enhancing self confidence and self esteem.

1.3.3.4 Family Determinants

This is another important class of factors that influence development of personality. The influence of family on personality development is maximal at all ages. The family affects the development of personality both directly or indirectly. Direct influence of family upon personality comes chiefly through different child-training methods which are used to mould the personality pattern, and the communication of interest, attitude and values between members of the family. Strict, demanding, punitive and inhibiting parents / guardians tend to encourage their children for depending upon external controls to guide their behaviour. As a result, when the children are outside the direct control of their parents/guardian, they tend to show impulsiveness in their behaviour.

Indirectly, through identification with parents, children develop a personality pattern similar to that of their parents. Experimental studies reveal that through imitation also, a certain personality pattern develops. For example, living with parents who are anxious, nervous and lacking the sense of humor produces in the children a sense of nervousness and frequent outburst of temper. Likewise, living with warm, affectionate, loving and interested parents generally produces a social and gregarious persons. Such persons also develop an interest of welfare and affection for persons outside the home as well.

1.3.3.5 Emotional Climate of Home and Ordinal Position

A very important factor in the development of personality is the emotional climate at home as well as the ordinal position of the individual concerned within his family. Ordinal position refers to the eldest or youngest or middle or 2nd or 3rd child in the family. If the home climate is favourable, the person will react to personal problems and frustrations in a calm way and to people in a tolerant and cooperative way. On the other hand if emotional climate of home is full of friction and conflicts, the person is more likely to develop a sense of hostility and may often tend to react to people in an aggressive way.

Ordinal position also affects the development of personality. Studies have revealed that the firstborns tend to be more conforming and dependent than later borns. They are more affiliative, more susceptible to group pressures and more introverted. Firstborns who achieve greater success than the later born siblings tend to be selfish and self centred. They show their feeling of superiority about their achievements by making criticism of others. Despite the feelings of superiority, they continue to suffer from a feeling of insecurity which had

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developed earlier when they were replaced by younger siblings towards which parents started giving more attention, love and affection. This feeling of insecurity is responsible for poor personal and social adjustment of the firstborns.

The major personality characteristics of lastborn, as shown by the various researches, are dependency, affiliative need, lack of self-confidence, lack of frustration tolerance, defiance of authority, etc. In comparison to the firstborns, most lastborns have relatively weak achievement motivation. They are generally not pressed by the members of the family to achieve more nor do most families care to provide them with the opportunities that were provided to the firstborns. So far as the middle born or second borns are concerned, they are found to be generally less family oriented and more peer oriented. From their peer relationship, they develop such personality traits which produce better personal and social adjustment. As a result, they are more popular among the peers in comparison to the first or lastborn.

1.3.3.6 Size of the Family

This factor also affects the development of personality. In larger families parents have little time to protect any child. As such, children learn to be independent and show maturity in their behaviour at an earlier age as compared to children of smaller families. However, larger families encourage certain personality characteristics that may hamper good personal and social adjustments. For keeping the home environment reasonably calm, parents of larger families generally adopt authoritarian method of control, which produces a strong sense of resentment and rebellion among children. In small families since parents devote enough time to care and provide proper guidance to each child, this produces self-confidence, self-assurance and eliminates the feeling of inadequacy which may come when the child is left to meet the problem alone. However, due to strict competition for getting parental attention, affection and approval in small families, jealousy and envy especially against the firstborns who are perceived to be parents' favourite, damages the self-concept of the concerned individual.

We have seen that the development of personality is shaped by a set of three factors, namely, physical or biological factors, psychological factors and environmental factors. There are psychologists like J.B. Watson, father of Behaviourism, who have outright emphasised upon only one factor, that is environmental factor ignoring the role of other two sets of factor in development of personality. He had emphatically proclaimed that give him a child, he will make him either a doctor or a beggar or a engineer or a thief irrespective of his abilities. Today there is little support for such statement and there is almost an unanimity among the personality psychologists regarding the basic view that the physical or biological factors provide a boundary for the development of personality and within this general boundary, personality is developed or shaped under the influence of various psychological and environmental factors. Therefore, it can be concluded that development of personality can be explained in terms of the following equation:

$$\text{Personality Development} = \text{Physical determinants} \times \text{Psychological determinants} \\ \times \text{Environmental determinants}$$

Self Assessment Questions 4

- 1) Social deprivation generally leads to :
 - a) Social rejection
 - b) Social discrimination
 - c) Negative self-concept
 - d) None of these.
- 2) Mohan, leader of a group, is more colourful, more flexible, more active in his approach. It all happens because he has :
 - a) Social acceptance
 - b) Social support
 - c) Social status
 - d) All the above.
- 3) Within a group when the person status changes such as from follower to leader or the vice versa, it is termed as :
 - a) Social mobility
 - b) Changes in group status
 - c) Social stereotype
 - d) None of these.
4. Which has the most lasting impact upon the development of personality of a student ?
 - a) Academic success
 - b) Teacher's attitude and behaviour
 - c) Teacher-student relationship
 - d) All of the above.
- 5) Which size of the family is considered ideal for development of personality?
 - a) Small families
 - b) Medium-size families
 - c) Large families
 - d) None.

1.4 LET US SUM UP

In this unit we learnt about personality. We pointed out as to how the term personality is often understood in terms of social attractiveness. We pointed out the scientific approach to personality development which explain the concept of personality in terms of individuality and consistency. Another important notion in defining the concept of personality is consistency. Combining these notions of individuality and consistency, personality can be defined as the distinctive and unique ways in which each individual thinks, feels and acts, which characterise a person's response throughout life. In other words, it can be said that personality refers to all those relatively permanent traits, dispositions or characteristics within the person that give some measure of consistency to the person's behaviour. These traits may be unique, common to some groups or shared by the entire species but their pattern will be different from individual to individual.

Behaviours of an individual seem to fit together in a meaningful way. It is to be kept in mind that the nature of behaviours is dynamic and there may occur changes in the organisation and structure of behaviours over a period of time. It is in this sense that Allport (1937, 1961), defined personality as the dynamic organisation within the person of the psychophysical systems that determine the unique adjustments to one's environment.

Then we took up personality development and pointed out as to how psychologists have tried to identify factors which directly or indirectly influence the growth and development of personality. Although there are a large number of factors,

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which influence the development of personality, such factors have been broadly grouped into three general categories and these are given below.

- i) Biological factors
- ii) Psychological factors and
- iii) Environmental factors.

Since these factors tend to determine the way personality develops they are also called as determinants of personality. These were discussed in detail. Biological factors consisted of body build, physical attractiveness, homeostasis, physical defects and health conditions. The psychological factors consisted of intellectual factors, emotional factors including excessive love and affection, self disclosure, aspiration and achievement and goal setting behaviour. and environmental factors consisted of social acceptance, social deprivation, educational factors, family emotional climate, ordinal position of the individual in the family and size of the family. Finally it was concluded that personality development takes place through learning processes including imitation.

1.5 UNIT END QUESTIONS

- 1) Define personality. Citing example, make distinction between temperament and character.
- 2) Discuss the physical or biological determinants of personality development.
- 3) Outline the role of psychological determinants of personality development.
- 4) Discuss the role of environmental determinants in shaping personality development.
- 5) Enumerate the basic formula : Personality Development = Physical determinants $\times$ Psychological determinants $\times$ Environmental determinants

1.6 SUGGESTED READINGS

Coon, D. (2007). *Introduction to Psychology*: Thompson.

Wood, S.E. & Wood, E.G. (1996). *The World of Psychology*: Allyn & Bacon

Ryckman, R.M (1993). *Theories of Personality*: Brooks / Cole Publishing Company.

1.7 ANSWERS TO SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

- | | | | | |
|-----------|--------|--------|--------|--------|
| 1) 1. (b) | 2 (d) | 3. (a) | 4. (c) | 5. (b) |
| 2) 1. (b) | 2. (b) | 3. (c) | 4. (d) | 5. (a) |
| 3) 1. (d) | 2. (b) | 3. (b) | 4. (b) | 5. (c) |
| 4) 1. (c) | 2. (a) | 3. (a) | 4. (c) | 5. (d) |

UNIT 2 STATE/TRAIT APPROACHES TO PERSONALITY

Structure

- 2.0 Introduction
- 2.1 Objectives
- 2.2 Type Approaches to Personality
- 2.3 Trait Approaches/Theories
 - 2.3.1 Allport's Trait Approach
 - 2.3.1.1 Common and Individual Traits
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 - 2.3.1.3 Central Traits
 - 2.3.1.4 Secondary Traits
 - 2.3.2 Cattell's Trait Approach
 - 2.3.3 Eysenck's Type/Trait Hierarchy
 - 2.3.3.1 Extraversion/Introversion
 - 2.3.3.2 Psychoticism/Impulse Control
 - 2.3.3.3 Inhibition Theory
 - 2.3.3.4 Arousal Theory
 - 2.3.4 Guilford's Trait Theory
 - 2.3.4.1 Physiological and Morphological Traits
 - 2.3.4.2 Needs, Interests, Attitudes
 - 2.3.4.3 Aptitudes
 - 2.3.4.4 Temperament
 - 2.3.5 Five Factor Model
 - 2.3.5.1 Extraversion (E)
 - 2.3.5.2 Neuroticism (N)
 - 2.3.5.3 Conscientiousness (C)
 - 2.3.5.4 Agreeableness (A)
 - 2.3.5.5 Openness (O)
- 2.4 Let Us Sum Up
- 2.5 Unit End Questions
- 2.6 Suggested Readings
- 2.7 Answers to Self Assessment Questions

2.0 INTRODUCTION

A large number of approaches to studying the personality have been put forward by many theorists. One of these is the type and trait approaches and these have been especially attributed to a few major theorists. In this unit we will take up first of all the Type approaches to personality and herein we will discuss the trait approach by Allport to describe personality. This will be followed by the trait approach by Cattell who gave emphasis on source and surface traits. Following this we will be dealing with Eysenck's trait and type approach to personality. Next will be the discussion of Guilford's theory which again is a trait approach. This is followed by the relatively more recent Five Factor Model of personality.

2.1 OBJECTIVES

After completing this unit, you will be able to:

- Define personality;
- Describe Allport's trait theory approach;
- Elucidate the factors contributing to Allport's theory of personality;
- Describe Cattell's trait theory to understanding personality;
- Explain the factors contributing to Cattell's personality theory;
- Elucidate Eysenck's theory of trait and type approach;
- Explain the factors contributing to Extraversion, neuroticism and psychoticism;
- Elucidate the Trait approach of Guilford to personality;
- Analyse the factors contributing to Guilford's idea of personality development;
- Elucidate the Five Factor Model of personality; and
- Describe and analyse OCEAN.

2.2 TYPE APPROACHES TO PERSONALITY

The earliest effort to explain human behaviour involved the use of personality typologies, which classified behaviour into discrete, all-or-nothing categories. For example, Hippocrates a Greek Physician (and later on Galen, too) classified individuals into four exclusive types according to four basic internal fluids or humors, each associated with a particular temperament. These four basic fluids were : blood, phlegm, black bile and yellow bile. The dominance of any one fluid led to a particular personality temperament. For example, dominance of blood produced Sanguine temperament (cheerful and active), dominance of phlegm produced Phlegmatic temperament (apathetic and sluggish), the dominance of black bile produced Melancholic temperament (sad and brooding) and dominance of yellow bile produced Choleric temperament (irritable and exitable). This is known as four-humor theory and remained popular for centuries although today it is regarded as a baseless theory because it has been established now that personality and moods are not driven by bodily fluids. Later on the basis of observation of patients, Hippocrates pointed out that people with short and thick bodies were prone to stroke and those with tall, thin bodies to tuberculosis.

Another interesting typologies were that of William Sheldon, a U.S.A. Physician. He tried to relate physique to temperament. On the basis of somatotype (body build), he assigned each individual to one of the three categories , viz., (i) ectomorphic (thin, long and fragile), (ii) endomorphic (fat, soft and round) and (iii) mesomorphic (muscular, strong and rectangular). According to Sheldon, ectomorphs are artistic, brainy and introverted, endomorphs are relaxed, fond of eating, sleeping and sociable whereas mesomorphs are affective, dominant, filled with energy and courage.

Sheldon's theory has not been substantiated and has proved of little value in predicting individual behaviour (Tylor, 1965). In addition, people belonged to many different shape and size and not all can be fitted to the Sheldon's three types.

MBTI (Myers-Briggs Type Indicator) typology is another typology which is modern one and based upon Carl Jung's theory of personality types. Using the MBTI, individual's self-reported preferences are used to assess four dimensions of personality: E or I (Extraversion- Introversion), S or N (Sensing or Intuition), T or F (Thinking-Feeling) and J or P (Judgement-Perception). The MBTI identifies 16 types of personality based on Jung's distinctions between E-I, S-N and T-F, as well as upon Isobel Myer's distinction between J-P. The J-P distinction indicates as to whether an individual's orientation toward the external world comes from rational (judging) or the irrational (perceiving) function pair. If a person takes MBTI, he would be assigned to only one pole of each dimension and the combination of dimensions would determine which of the sixteen types best describes him. For example, a person who receives ESFP (Extraverted-Sensing-Feeling-Perception) classification would be characterised as outgoing, easygoing, accepting, friendly and would be considered best in situations that need sound common sense and practical ability with people as well as with things.

The Myers-Briggs is a very good type system because its categories are distinct or discontinuous and people of any one type are supported to be very much like each other that help them to be distinguished from other types. Critics of MBTI state that while the four dimensions are informative, persons should be described according to their actual scores on each dimension rather than being mixed into types.

Type approach to personality apparently fails in its mission to provide a satisfactory classification system because there are many people who cannot be fitted into prescribed type. Today, psychologists prefer to describe people not in terms of type rather in terms of traits. Types are not descriptive of the persons. In fact, they rob the uniqueness of persons by placing the persons into a preconceived category. Thus type exists in the eye of beholder whereas traits exist within the people.

2.3 TRAIT APPROACHES/THEORIES

These approaches explain personality in terms of traits, which are defined as relatively stable and consistent personal characteristics. Trait approach attempts to explain personality and differences between people in terms of their personal characteristics, to devise ways of measuring individual differences in personality traits and to use these measures for understanding and predicting a person's behaviour. Type approach assume that there are separate, and discontinuous categories into which persons fit whereas trait approach assumes that there are continuous dimensions such as warmth, extraversion, etc. that vary in quality as well as degree.

Under the trait approach, the viewpoints of Allport, Cattell, Eysenck Guilford, and the Five Factor Model would be discussed in detail.

2.3.1 Allport's Trait Approach

Allport is regarded as one of the most important and influential personality theorists. Several years ago, Allport went through the English Dictionary and painstakingly recorded a list of 17,953 words that described personal traits (Allport & Odbert, 1936). Obviously it would be impractical to describe persons in terms of where they fall on roughly 18,000 traits. However, on the basis of these words, attempt was made to propose traits like dominance, friendliness, self-esteem, etc. This is called lexical approach to define personality trait.

For Allport, traits are the building blocks of personality as well as the source of individuality. He is known as idiographic trait theorist who has a strong belief that each person has some unique as well as some common characteristics that together form a unique combination of traits. For Allport, trait is something that exists but remains invisible. It is located somewhere in the nervous system (Ryckman, 1993).

We infer the existence of a trait by observing consistencies in the behaviour of the person. Dissimilar stimuli tend to arouse a trait readiness within the person and then trait manifests itself through the varieties of different responses. All these responses are equivalent in the sense that they serve the function of expression of trait.

To illustrate this, let us take an example of an employee working in the university office. His shyness is inferred from his inability to establish friendship with others, his avoidance of social gatherings of the employees, his enjoyment with solitary entertainment activities and his unwillingness to participate in discussion, etc.

2.3.1.1 Common and Individual Traits

Allport recognised two major categories of traits:

- i) Common traits and
- ii) Individual traits.

Common traits are those traits which we share in common with many others in our culture. For example being quiet, showing due respect to seniors and making polite behaviour to others are the traits we share with others in Indian culture. This illustrates the common traits.

Individual traits or also called personal dispositions are those traits which are unique to the person concerned and Allport regarded individual traits to be more important than common traits.

According to him, there are three types of individual traits

2.3.1.2 Cardinal Traits

A cardinal trait is a trait which is so pervasive, dominant and outstanding in life that every behaviour seems traceable to its influence. Most people do not have cardinal traits but those who have them, are well-known by those traits. For instance, Mahatma Gandhi was having the cardinal traits of peace-loving and strong faith in non-violence for which he is well known.

2.3.1.3 Central Traits

Central traits are those traits which are generally listed in a carefully written letter of recommendation. In fact, any trait name like friendliness, dominance, self-centeredness would be the example of central trait. Every person has several central traits and there are five to ten most outstanding traits in each person around which a person's life focuses.

2.3.1.4 Secondary Traits

Secondary traits are traits which are less conspicuous, less consistent, less generalised and less relevant to the definition of personality. For example, food habits, hair style, and specific attitudes are examples of secondary traits.

All these traits are dynamic in the sense that they possess motivational power. Those individual traits or dispositions which are intensely experienced are said to be more motivational. Those individual traits which are less intensely experienced though possessing more motivational power are said to be more stylistic.

Whether motivational or stylistics, some individual traits are close to the core of the person's personality whereas some are at the periphery.

According to Allport, all these individual traits form structure of personality which, in turn, determines the behaviour of an individual. In his view only by focussing upon the uniqueness of the individual, a scientific and substantial understanding of personality is possible.

Allport also held that personality is not a mere bundle of unrelated traits, rather it embodies a unity, consistency and integration of traits. This integration work is accomplished by self or 'Proprium' as Allport has named it. In his view the Proprium or self develops continuously from infancy to death and during this period it moves through a series of stages.

Self Assessment Questions 1

- 1) Allport was supporter of:
 - a) Nomothetic approach to personality
 - b) Trait approach to personality
 - c) Idiographic approach to personality
 - d) Both b and c
- 2) Your hair style will be the example of:
 - a) Cardinal trait
 - b) Secondary trait
 - c) Central trait
 - d) None of these
- 3) Allport emphasised more upon:
 - a) Common trait
 - b) Individual traits
 - c) Proprium
 - e) None of these.

- 4) Following Allport, the trait which is a defining characteristic of one's personality is :
 - a) Individual trait
 - b) Common trait
 - c) Cardinal trait
 - d) Secondary trait.
- 5) You have just been told by counsellor that on the basis of Myers-Briggs personality test you are an ESTP. Your counsellor apparently favours which of the following approaches to personality :
 - a) Trait approach
 - b) Type approach
 - c) Psychodynamic approach
 - d) Type approach

2.3.2 Cattell's Trait Approach

Raymond Cattell (1950) considered personality to be a pattern of traits providing the key to understanding it and predicting a person's behaviour. According to him, traits are relatively permanent and broad reaction tendencies of personality. They serve as the building blocks of personality. He distinguished between (i) surface trait and source trait, (ii) constitutional and environmental-mold traits (iii) ability, temperament and dynamic traits.

i) Surface traits and source traits

The observable qualities of a personality like kindness, honesty, helpfulness, generosity, etc. are named as surface traits. Allport has called these qualities or traits as central traits. Using questionnaires and observations, Cattell studied several thousand people and he reported certain cluster of surface traits that appeared together from time to time. He further reported that these were the clear evidence of some deeper, more general underlying personality factors, and he referred to these as source traits.

Source traits make up the most basic structure of personality and are the underlying factors that are responsible for the inter-correlation among surface traits. Although source traits are smaller in number than surface traits, yet they are better predictors of human behaviour. We all possess the same source traits but we do not possess them in the same amount. For example, intelligence is an example of source trait and everyone of us possesses this but we all do not possess intelligence in the same amount.

Cattell found 23 source traits in normal persons and 16 of which he studied in detail. These 16 basic source traits were then used in the construction of the Sixteen Personality (16PF) Questionnaire popularly known as "16 PF test". The sixteen factors identified by Cattell include (i) Reserved vs outgoing, (ii) less intelligent vs more intelligent, (iii) emotional vs. stable (iv) humble vs. assertive, (v) sober vs. happy-go-lucky, (vi) expedient vs. conscientious, (vii) shy vs. venturesome, (viii) tough-minded vs. tender-minded, (ix) trusting vs. suspicious, (x) practical vs. imaginative, (xi) forthright vs. shrewd (xii) placid vs. apprehensive, (xiii) conservative vs. experimenting, (xiv) group-tied vs. self-sufficiency, (xv) casual vs. controlled, and (xvi) relaxed vs. tense.

In addition to these 16 factors measured by personality test, Cattell, on the basis of his subsequent researches proposed seven new factors : excitability, zeppia vs. Coasthenia, boorishness vs. mature socialisation, sanguine casualness, group dedication with sensed inadequacy and social panache vs. explicit expression.

Although the sixteen source traits utilised in 16PF can be used to make distinction between normals and neurotics, they fail to assess all aspects of deviant behaviour as well as the characteristics of psychotics. Using factor analysis to the surface traits of the normal and abnormal personality spheres, Cattell derived 12 new factors that measure psychopathological traits, such as hypochondriasis, zestfulness, brooding discontent, anxious depression, energy euphoria, guilt and resentment, bored depression, paranoia, psychopathic deviation, schizophrenism, psychesthesia and general psychosis. All these traits are in bipolar format. These 12 factors have been combined with 16 PF in the construction of new test called Clinical Analysis Questionnaire (CAQ). With the construction of CAQ, Cattell was of the view that he has identified major source traits of both normal and abnormal personality.

ii) **Constitutional and environmental traits**

Cattell also distinguished between constitutional traits and environmental mold traits. Constitutional traits are those traits which are determined by nature or biology whereas environmental mold traits are those which are determined by nurture that is by experience gained in interaction with environment.

Most surface traits, for Cattell, reflects a mixture of both heredity (nature) and environment (nurture). However, he further points out that there are some source traits which derive solely from within the individual (biology of the individual) and there are some source traits which derive solely from source derived only from environmental factors. Through a complicated statistical technique called MAVA (Multiple Abstract Variance Analysis), he was able to assess the degree to which various traits are determined either by environmental or genetically determined factors. MAVA is based upon the comparisons between people of the same family either reared together or reared apart or between members of different families reared either together or apart.

iii) **Ability, temperament and dynamic traits**

Cattell has further subdivided traits into ability traits, temperament traits and dynamic traits.

Ability traits refer to the person's skill in dealing with the environment and the goals set therein. Intelligence is an example of ability trait.

Temperament traits refer to stylistic tendencies that largely show how a person moves towards a goal. Being moody, irritable, easygoing are examples of temperament trait.

Dynamic traits are the person's motivation and interest which set the person in action toward the goal. A person may be characterised as being power-seeking, ambitious or sports-oriented. This reflects the dynamic trait. The important dynamic traits in Cattell's system are of three types, viz. (i) attitudes, (ii) ergs and (iii) sentiments.

Attitudes are dynamic surface traits which display specific manifestations of underlying motives. Ergs are constitutional dynamic source trait. It is through ergs that cattell has given due recognition to innately determined but modifiable impellents of behaviour. Ten ergs like hunger, sex, gregariousness, parental protectiveness, curiosity, escape, pugnacity, acquisitiveness, self-assertion and

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narcissistic sex have been recognised by Cattell. Sentiment focusses on social object and it is an environmental mold dynamic source trait. Thus it is more or less parallel to ergs except that it results from experimental or socio-cultural factors.

Self Assessment Questions 2

- 1) The inter-correlation among surface traits leads to development of an inference about:
 - a) Temperament trait
 - b) Erg
 - c) Source trait
 - d) None of there
- 2) Erg belongs to the category of:
 - a) Temperament trait
 - b) Dynamic trait
 - c) Ability trait
 - d) None.
- 3) Which of the following is not assessed by clinical Analysis questionnaire?
 - a) Energy Euphoria
 - b) Bored dpression
 - c) Schizophrenia
 - d) Shyness.
- 4) Friendliness is an example of:
 - a) Source trait
 - b) Surface trait
 - c) Temperament trait
 - d) None.
- 5) According to Cattell which trait causes behaviour for predictable purposes:
 - a) Surface trait
 - b) Abiity trait
 - c) Source trait
 - d) Dynamic trait.

2.3.3 Eysenck's Type/ Trait Hierarchy

British Psychologist Hans Eysenck (1990) had a strong belief that personality is largely determined by genes and that the environmental factors have very little role to play in it. He opined that personality is more or less stable and enduring organisation of a person's character, temperament, intellect and physique. In this definition, he has emphasised upon traits (stable and enduring characteristics) which when clustered together, constitutes a type.

Eysenck's viewpoint is personality is hierarchically organised, consisting of types, traits and habits. At the lowest level of Eysenck's hierarchy are the single responses like action or thoughts. Regularly occurring responses form habits and related habits form traits and several traits clustered together constitute a type or also known as super factors.

Thus types are most abstract, followed by traits and then by habits and then finally by responses at the beginning level. In fact, each of the 'type' concepts is based on a set of observed inter correlations among various traits. Each 'trait' is inferred from inter correlations among habitual responses. Habitual responses are, in turn, based upon specific observable responses.

Thus the entire process can be explained through an example. It is known that 'extraversion' is based upon observed inter correlations among the traits like liveliness, sociability, activity, and excitability. Each of these traits is inferred from inter correlations among habitual responses such as for instance going to club, liking to talk with people, taking part in any social activity on the spur of the moment and so forth. These habits are themselves inferred from some observable specific responses like real occasion where the person actually went to club, talked with people, participated in group discussion, etc.

Based upon numerous factor analyses on personality data gathered from different populations, Eysenck derived two major factors or dimensions of personality, viz.,

- i) Extraversion/Introversion
- ii) Neuroticism/stability.

Later, on the basis of other statistical analysis, he postulated a third dimension, viz.,

- iii) Psychoticism/Impulse control.

These three dimensions, according to Eysenck, are the major individual difference types considered most useful in describing personality functioning. To measure these three dimensions of personality, Eysenck developed a paper and pencil test. The latest version of the test has been named as Eysenck Personality Questionnaire (EPQ).

2.3.3.1 Extraversion/Introversion

Extraverts are individuals who are sociable and impulsive and who like excitement and oriented toward external reality. Introverts are introspective persons who are more oriented toward inner reality and tend to exhibit preference towards a well-ordered life. Neurotics are emotionally unstable persons. The hallmark of most neurotics is that they exhibit an anxiety level disproportionate to the realities of the situation. Some neurotics may exhibit obsessional or impulsive symptoms and some may show unreasonable fear of objects, persons, places, etc. However, there are neurotics who are free from the burden of anxiety and fear and in this group, psychopaths are placed who fail to assess the consequences of their actions and who behave in antisocial manner regardless of the punishment they get (Eysenck, 1965).

2.3.3.2 Psychoticism/Impulse Control

Psychotics are characterised by traits such as being insensitive to others, hostile, at times cruel and inhuman. Despite all the psychopathological traits, Eysenck believed that psychotics tend to be creative (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1985). He based his conclusion on his work with schizophrenics who gave many original responses on the Rorschach test.

2.3.3.3 Inhibition Theory

Eysenck developed a theory called inhibition theory to explain why people who differed along the various dimensions should behave differently from one another. According to Eysenck, individual differences along the extraversion/introversion dimension are strongly determined by heredity and have their basic origins in the cerebral Cortex of the central nervous system.

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Drawing upon the work of Tephlov (1964) and Pavlov (1927), Eysenck pointed out that extraverts have relatively stronger inhibitory processes and very weak excitatory processes. Besides, their nervous systems are strong which forces them to tolerate a large capacity of stimulation. Introverts, on the other hand, have very strong excitatory processes and weak inhibitory processes. Apart from this, their nervous system is weak which means that they have a small capacity to tolerate stimulation. Thus the brains of extraverts react more slowly and weakly towards stimuli thereby creating a strong desire for strong sensory stimulation which causes them to seek excitement by going to parties, making new friends, and attending to various types of meeting, etc. On the other hand, introverts are more cortically aroused and their brains react quickly and strongly to stimuli. As such, they tolerate relatively small amount of stimulation. Consequently, strong stimulation from the environment proves to be aversive for them and they tend to spend more time in aloof activities like reading, writing, playing chess, etc.

2.3.3.4 Arousal Theory

Recently, inhibition theory has been replaced by arousal theory by Eysenck because inhibition and excitation although were very useful concepts, were found to be extremely difficult to assess. Arousal theory has the advantage of identifying the physiological systems underlying individual differences in extraversion / introversion and neuroticism / stability. According to arousal theory, differences in the behaviour of introverts and extraverts are due to the various parts of Ascending Reticular Activating System (ARAS) which is a network of fibers going upward from the lower brain stem to the thalamus and cortex. Some other fibers descend from the lower brain stem which influences the activities of bodily muscles and autonomic nervous system. At the same time, such descending fibers can also modulate the activity of the brain stem.

Thus the relation between ARAS and cortex become reciprocal, that is, ARAS activate the cortex, which, in turn, influences ARAS either by increasing or inhibiting the excitability. Eysenck was of view that introverts have innately higher levels of arousal than extraverts. As a result, they are more likely to be sensitive to stimulation. In arousal theory, Eysenck tends to make it explicit that the seat of neuroticism lies in visceral brain or limbic system.

All structures of visceral brain such as hippocampus, amygdala, cingulum, septum and hypothalamus are involved in generating emotionality. Since visceral brain and ARSA are only partially independent from each other, cortical and autonomic arousal can also be produced by activities of the visceral brain. In particular, such activities produce arousal in sympathetic nervous system, causing increase in heart rate, breathing rates and loss of digestion, etc. People showing higher degree of neuroticism generally have lower thresholds for activity in visceral brain and greater responsivity of sympathetic nervous system. That is the reason why neurotics are innately more reactive rather overreacting to even mild forms of stimulation.

Self Assessment Questions 3

- 1) What is the correct sequence of organisation in Eysenck type-trait hierarchy?
 - a) Trait-Type-Habit-Response
 - b) Response-Habit-Trait-Type

- c) Type-Trait-Response-Habit
- d) Habit-Response-Trait-Type.
- 2) Which of the followings is Not assessed by EPQ?
 - a) Extroversion
 - b) Psychoticism
 - c) Neuroticism
 - d) Pscyhopathic tendencies.
- 3) According to Eysenck, which are is Not the characteristic of Psychotics?
 - a) Psychotics are creative people
 - b) Psychotics are hostile and cruel
 - c) Psychotics are inhumane
 - d) Psychotics are oriented toward inner reality.
- 4) Who claimed that personality can best be understood by assessing people on two dimensions: Extroversion and Neuroticism ?
 - a) Allport
 - b) Cattell
 - c) Eyesenck
 - d) Jung.
- 5) According to arousal theory of Eysenck, which one is regarded as the seat of neuroticism ?

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2.3.4 Guilford's Trait Theory

J.P. Guilford is another important psychologist who have tried to analyse and predict about personality on the basis of traits. The importance of trait for Guildford's view about personality can be understood from his definition of personality which states that an individual personality is nothing but the individual's unique pattern of traits. Trait, for him, is any distinguishable, relatively enduring way in which one person differs from another.

Using factor analysis, Guilford came to the conclusion that there are seven modalities of traits, that is (i) morphological, (ii) physiological, (iii) needs, (iv) interest, (v) attitudes (vi) aptitudes and (vii) temperament. The first two are the somatic traits whereas the last five are behavioural aspects of personality.

Guilford has emphasised that these modalities should not be regarded as seven separate constituent parts of personality but personality must be seen as integrated whole and these seven modalities can be seven different directions from which the whole can be viewed. In other words, personality is not the sum total of seven traits but rather a whole or single entity which can be looked at from at least seven different angles. These seven traits are briefly discussed below.

2.3.4.1 Physiological and Morphological Traits

Physiological traits and morphological traits together are called somatic traits. Physiological traits refer to physical functions such as heart rate, breathing rate, hormone level, blood sugar and so forth. Morphological traits, on the other hand, refer to physical attributes such as physique, head size, length of hand and leg, size of ear, curvature of spine, etc. Guilford (1959) reported very little substantial relationship between these two types of traits, that is, morphological traits and physiological traits although Sheldon (1942) earlier had reported a high correlation between physique and temperament.

2.3.4.2 Needs, Interests and Attitudes

Needs, interests and attitudes are regarded as hormetic (adaptive responses) dimensions of personality by Guilford. These hormetic traits, therefore, instigate action because they are more or less directly related to motivation.

Needs are said to be relatively permanent dispositions that motivate the person towards certain condition. For example, prestige is one need and it instigates action towards getting social prestige. Likewise to get food is a need, which motivates a hungry person toward securing a full stomach.

Interests are person's generalised behaviour tendency to be attracted by some stimuli. Thus, for Guilford, interest are general rather than specific traits and valued positively rather than negatively. Besides, interest also refers to liking to perform some activities. All such interests contribute to causation of behaviour.

Attitudes also instigate behaviour and they are defined as a disposition to favour or not to favour a social object or social action. Since attitudes involve belief, feelings and action, therefore, they are cognitive, affective and conative, too. One's view about premarital sex, divorce and equal right to women can be the example of attitudes. Having a particular attitude forces the person to think, feel and act accordingly.

2.3.4.3 Aptitudes

Aptitudes refer to how well an individual can perform a given activity and they represent a dimension of ability though they are more specific than abilities. It means that all aptitudes are abilities but not all abilities are aptitude. For example, a tall person may have the ability to reach at the highest shelf but this could not be considered his aptitude. On the basis of factor analysis, Guildford (1959) identified three primary aptitudes, viz., (i) Perceptual aptitudes, (ii) Psychomotor aptitudes and (iii) intelligence.

Perceptual aptitudes relate to the various sense modalities and include factors like visual, auditory and kinesthetic sensitivity.

Psychomotor aptitudes are abilities shown by physical educators, dance instructors and athletic coaches. Human engineers also need psychomotor aptitudes because they have to design machine in such a way that they must be operated conveniently.

Intelligence is a general aptitude. Guilford developed his famous Structure-of-intellect model based upon three primary parameters of operations, products and contents. Originally, there were five categories of operation and six categories of

product and four categories of content in this model. The result was $5 \times 6 \times 4 = 120$ factors or components of intelligence. Shortly before his death, Guilford (1988), however, expanded the total number from 120 to 180 abilities or factors when he raised the categories of operation from five to six by dividing one of the component of operation, that is, memory into two : Memory recording and Memory relation. The total number of categories of contents was also changed from four to five. Thus now the total factors constituting intelligence became $6 \times 6 \times 5 = 180$.

2.3.4.4 Temperament

According to Guilford (1959) temperament refers to the manner in which the individual performs a behaviour. Whether a person is impulsive, tolerant, deliberate or critical in his or her behaviour, is all indicative of the person's temperament. Temperament has been assessed by varieties of inventories in which Guilford-Zimmerman Temperament Survey (GZTS) became very popular.

GZTS assesses 10 bipolar traits of temperament : General activity vs. Inactivity (G), Restraint vs. Impulsiveness (R), Ascendancy vs. submissiveness (A), Sociability vs. Shyness (S), Emotional stability vs. Depression (E) Objectivity vs. Subjectivity (O), Friendliness vs. Hostility (F), Thoughtfulness vs. Unreflectiveness (T), Personal relations vs. Criticalness (P) and Masculinity vs. Femininity (M).

Guilford has pointed out that there are three levels of trait generality : hexic level, primary trait level and type level. Hexic trait is displayed by the person only in specific situations. For example, Mohan who is generally shy and reserved person, may show dominance and aggression before his friends for winning the competition. Here dominance and aggression are examples of hexic level trait and determine his specific actions.

Primary traits are manifested in broader range of behaviour than are hexic traits. For example, when Shyam shows dominance and aggression most of the time in his behaviour, it means these two are his primary traits. Guilford further has opined that primary traits are determined to some extent by types. When a person's behaviours generally revolve around any single disposition, he is said to be manifesting a type upon which Guilford did not give as much emphasis as it had been done by Eysenck. Thus types are composed of primary traits which have positive intercorrelations. An extravert type, for example, may be recognised through observation of high correlations among the primary traits of sociability, orientation towards external reality, impulsiveness, love for contacting other people, tolerance for pain, etc.

Self Assessment Questions 4

- 1) Which of the followings is Not a hormetic trait ?
 - a) Interest
 - b) Need
 - c) Attitude
 - d) Aptitude
- 2) Physicque is an example of:
 - a) Hormetic trait
 - b) Physiological trait
 - c) Morphological
 - d) None.

- 3) How many abilities have been identified by Structure-of-intellect model?
 - a) 120
 - b) 160
 - c) 180
 - d) 140
- 4) Physical functions like heart rate, breathing rate, brain wave patterns are all covered by :
 - a) Morphological traits
 - b) Physiological traits
 - c) Hormetic traits
 - d) Behavioural traits.
- 5) Which of the followings is not assessed by GZTS?
 - a) Masculinity – femininity
 - b) Friendliness – hostility
 - c) Practical – imaginative
 - d) Sociability – shyness.

2.3.5 Five Factor Model

Today, the most talked about trait approach to personality is the Five Factor Model (FFM) also known as the Big Five. As its name implies, according to this model there are five broad personality factors, each of which is composed of constellation of traits. Based on his own researches as well as researches of others in 1981, Goldberg pointed out that it is possible to prepare a model for structuring individual differences among traits of personality. Big Five was meant to refer to the finding that each factor subsumes a large number of specific traits. In fact, the Big Five are almost as broad and abstract as Eysenck's superfactors. Those Big Five dimensions of personality using the names assigned by MC Crae and Costa (1987) are as under :

2.3.5.1 Extraversion (E)

This factor assesses the quality and intensity of interpersonal interaction. High scorer in this factor is characterised by being sociable, active, talkative, person-oriented, optimistic, fun-loving and affectionate, whereas low scorer is characterised by being reserved, sober, aloof, task oriented, retiring and quiet. Thus this factor contrasts extraverted traits with introverted traits.

2.3.5.2 Neuroticism (N)

This factor assesses adjustment vs. emotional instability. Persons high on neuroticism are prone to emotional instability. Such persons tend to experience negative emotion and are characterised by being moody, irritable, nervous, insecure, and hypochondriacal. Low scorers on this dimension are characterised by being calm, relaxed, unemotional, hardy, self-satisfied etc. Thus this factor differentiates people who are emotionally stable from those who are emotionally unstable.

2.3.5.3 Conscientiousness (C)

This factor mainly assesses the person's degree of organisation, persistence and motivation in goal directed behaviour. In other words, this factor describes task and goal directed behaviours and the socially required impulse control behaviour. This factor easily differentiates individuals who are dependable, organised, hard working, responsible, reliable and thorough (high scorers) from those who are undependable, disorganised, unreliable, impulsive, irresponsible, lazy and negligent (low scorers).

2.3.5.4 Agreeableness (A)

This factor assesses the person's quality of interpersonal orientation ranging from compassion to antagonism in thinking, feeling and action. High scorer on this factor would be characterised by soft-hearted, good-natured, trusting, helpful, straightforward and forgiving whereas the low scorer would be characterised by cynical, suspicious, uncooperative, vengeful, irritable and manipulative.

2.3.5.5 Openness (O)

This factor assesses proactive seeking and appreciation of experience for its own sake as well as tolerance for and exploration for the something new and unfamiliar. High scorers would be characterised by being good-natured, warm, sympathetic and cooperative whereas low scorers would be characterised by being unfriendly, aggressive, unpleasant, argumentative, cold and even hostile.

First letters of the Big Five dimensions can be reordered to spell out the word OCEAN—an easy way to keep them in memory.

For assessing these Big Five dimensions, Goldberg (1992) has developed a questionnaire named Transparent Bipolar Inventory. Still another much more popular questionnaire to assess Big Five has been developed by Costa and McCrae (1992). This questionnaire has been named as the NEO-Personality Inventory (NEO-PI-R). Originally, this inventory assessed only N, E and O but later on the other two factors such as A and C were also included. In this new inventory each dimension or factor is defined by six facets and each facet is measured by 8 items. Therefore, the latest version of NEO-PI-R consists of a total of 240 items (5 factors $\times$ 6 facets $\times$ 8 items). On the basis of several studies, McCrae and Costa (1990) are convinced that these five factors as measured by NEO-PI-R are sufficient for describing the basic dimensions of personality. In fact, they go beyond this to say that, “no other system is as complete and yet so parsimonious”.

In making a fair evaluation to trait approach, it can be said that longitudinal studies support trait approach. McCrae and Costa (1990) have studied personality traits of persons over time and have found them to be stable for a period of 3 to 30 years. They have opined that stable individual differences in basic dimensions are universal feature of adult personality. Despite this, critics are of view that trait approach, like type approach, don't explain the causes or development of personality. It simply identifies and describes characteristics, which are correlated with behaviour. Moreover, critics of trait perspective further say that the consistency of our behaviour across situations is very low and therefore, not predictable on the basis of personality traits. Initially, one of the severest critics of trait approach was Walter Mischel (1968) who claimed that the situation, and not our traits, determines the behaviour.

Thus his stand initiated person situation debate, that is, question of relative importance of person and situation in determining the behaviour of the persons. Now Mischel has modified his original position and has proclaimed that behaviour is shaped by both the person (traits) and the situation. Other psychologists have also provided support for the view that there are some internal traits which strongly influence behaviour across different situations (Carson, 1989; McAdams, 1992).

Self Assessment Questions 5

- 1) Which of the followings is not assessed by Five factor model ?
 - a) Neuroticism
 - b) Psychoticism
 - c) Agreeableness
 - d) Conscientiousness.
- 2) The latest version of NEO-PI-R measures the dimensions of personality through :
 - a) Six facets
 - b) Five facets
 - c) Seven facets
 - d) Four facets.
- 3) Who developed Transparent Bipolar Inventory ?
 - a) McCrae and Costa
 - b) Goldbeng
 - c) Eysenck
 - d) None of these.
- 4) Who has been considered as the most severest critics of trait approach?
 - a) Campbell
 - b) Hawley
 - c) Mischel
 - d) None of these.
- 5) High scorers on Agreeableness dimension of Big Five model would be characterised by being :
 - a) good-natured, trusting and soft-hearted
 - b) organised, reliable and hard-working
 - c) curious, creative and untraditional
 - d) active, talkative and fun-loving

2.4 LET US SUM UP

In this unit we learnt that the earliest effort to explain human behaviour involved the use of personality typologies, which classified behaviour into discrete, all-or-nothing categories. The first was the four-humor theory and remained popular for centuries although today it is regarded as a baseless theory because it has been established now that personality and moods are not driven by bodily fluids. This was followed by Sheldon's somatotype (body build) based theory of personality. Sheldon assigned each individual to one of the three categories, viz., (i) ectomorphic (thin, long and fragile), (ii) endomorphic (fat, soft and round) and (iii) mesomorphic (muscular, strong and rectangular). According to Sheldon, ectomorphs are artistic, brainy and introverted, endomorphs are relaxed, fond of eating, sleeping and sociable whereas mesomorphs are affective, dominant, filled with energy and courage.

MBTI (Myers-Briggs Type Indicator) typology is another typology which is modern one and based upon Carl Jung's theory of personality types. The four dimensions of personality that are assessed here are : E or I (Extraversion-Introversion), S or N (Sensing or Intuition), T or F (Thinking-Feeling) and J or P (Judgment-Perception). The MBTI identifies 16 types of personality based on Jung's distinctions between E-I, S-N and T-F, as well as upon Isobel Myer's distinction between J-P.

Since the type theories robbed the uniqueness of persons by placing the persons into a preconceived category, the trait theories came about. Trait approaches explain personality in terms of traits, which are defined as relatively stable and consistent personal characteristics. Trait approach attempts to explain personality and differences between people in terms of their personal characteristics, to devise ways of measuring individual differences in personality traits and to use these measures for understanding and predicting a person's behaviour. Under the trait approach, we considered the viewpoints of Allport, Cattell, Eysenck, Guilford, and the Five Factor Model would be discussed in detail.

For Allport, traits are the building blocks of personality as well as the source of individuality. For Allport, trait is something that exists but remains invisible. It is located somewhere in the nervous system (Ryckman, 1993). Allport recognised two major categories of traits: Common traits and Individual traits. He classified individual traits further into three types, viz. cardinal traits, central trait and secondary trait.

All these traits are dynamic in the sense that they possess motivational power. Those individual traits or dispositions which are intensely experienced are said to be more motivational. Those individual traits which are less intensely experienced though possessing more motivational power are said to be more stylistic.

According to Allport, all these individual traits form structure of personality which, in turn, determines the behaviour of an individual. In his view only by focussing upon the uniqueness of the individual, a scientific and substantial understanding of personality is possible.

We then learnt about Cattell's Trait theory. Raymond Cattell (1950) considered personality to be a pattern of traits providing the key to understanding it and predicting a person's behaviour. According to him, traits are relatively permanent and broad reaction tendencies of personality. They serve as the building blocks of personality. He distinguished between (i) surface trait and source trait, (ii) constitutional and environmental-mold traits (iii) ability, temperament and dynamic traits.

Cattell found 23 source traits in normal persons and 16 of which he studied in detail. These 16 basic source traits were then used in the construction of the Sixteen Personality (16PF) Questionnaire popularly known as "16 PF test". In addition to these 16 factors measured by personality test, Cattell, on the basis of his subsequent researches proposed seven new factors. Using factor analysis to the surface traits of the normal and abnormal personality spheres, Cattell derived 12 new factors that measure psychopathological traits. Cattell also distinguished between constitutional traits and environmental mold traits. Cattell has further subdivided traits into ability traits, temperament traits and dynamic traits.

Dynamic traits are the person's motivation and interest which set the person in action toward the goal. The important dynamic traits in Cattell's system are of three types, viz. (i) attitudes, (ii) ergs and (iii) sentiments.

We then learnt about Eysenck's Type Trait Hierarchy theory. British Psychologist Hans Eysenck (1990) had a strong belief that personality is largely determined by genes and that the environmental factors have very little role to play in it. He

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opined that personality is more or less stable and enduring organisation of a person's character, temperament, intellect and physique. In this definition, he has emphasised upon traits (stable and enduring characteristics) which when clustered together, constitutes a type.

Eysenck's viewpoint is personality is hierarchically organised, consisting of types, traits and habits. At the lowest level of Eysenck's hierarchy are the single responses like action or thoughts. Regularly occurring responses form habits and related habits form traits and several traits clustered together constitute a type or also known as super factors. Later, on the basis of other statistical analysis, he postulated a third dimension, viz., Psychoticism/Impulse control. These three dimensions, according to Eysenck, are the major individual difference types considered most useful in describing personality functioning. To measure these three dimensions of personality, Eysenck developed a paper and pencil test. The latest version of the test has been named as Eysenck Personality Questionnaire (EPQ).

Recently, inhibition theory has been replaced by arousal theory by Eysenck because inhibition and excitation although were very useful concepts, were found to be extremely difficult to assess. According to arousal theory, differences in the behaviour of introverts and extraverts are due to the various parts of Ascending Reticular Activating System (ARAS) in the nervous system.

Eysenck's theory was followed by learning about Guilford's trait theory. Guilford defined personality as the individual's unique pattern of traits. Trait, for him, is any distinguishable, relatively enduring way in which one person differs from another. Using factor analysis, Guilford came to the conclusion that there are seven modalities of traits, that is (i) morphological, (ii) physiological, (iii) needs, (iv) interest, (v) attitudes (vi) aptitudes and (vii) temperament. The first two are the somatic traits whereas the last five are behavioural aspects of personality. Guilford emphasised that these modalities should not be regarded as seven separate constituent parts of personality but personality must be seen as integrated whole and these seven modalities can be seven different directions from which the whole can be viewed. Guilford also pointed out three levels of trait generality: hexic level, primary trait level and type level.

Today, the most talked about trait approach to personality is the Five Factor Model (FFM) also known as the Big Five. As its name implies, according to this model there are five broad personality factors, each of which is composed of constellation of traits. Based on his own researches as well as researches of others Goldberg pointed out that it is possible to prepare a model for structuring individual differences among traits of personality. Big Five was meant to refer to the finding that each factor subsumes a large number of specific traits. In fact, the Big Five are almost as broad and abstract as Eysenck's superfactors. Those Big Five dimensions of personality using the names assigned by MC Crae and Costa (1987) are *Extraversion* (E), *Neuroticism* (N), *Conscientiousness* (C), *Agreeableness* (A), *Openness* (O)

First letters of the Big Five dimensions can be reordered to spell out the word OCEAN—an easy way to keep them in memory.

For assessing these Big Five dimensions, Goldberg (1992) has developed a questionnaire named Transparent Bipolar Inventory. Still another much more

popular questionnaire to assess Big Five has been developed by Costa and McCrae (1992) named as the NEO-Personality Inventory (NEO-PI-R). Originally, this inventory assessed only N, E and O but later on the other two factors such as A and C were also included.

2.5 UNIT END QUESTIONS

- 1) Make distinction between individual traits and common traits. Following Allport, discuss the different types of individual traits and their importance in predicting human behaviour.
- 2) Explain viewpoints of Cattell regarding traits as being one of the determiners of human behaviour.
- 3) Do you find Eysenck's type-trait hierarchy a satisfactory explanation for making prediction about human behaviour ?
- 4) Discuss the different trait modalities as outlined by J.P. Guilford for understanding and predicting human behaviour.
- 5) Discuss the role of five-factor model in understanding human behaviour.
- 6) Do you find trait perspective a satisfactory explanation for explaining personality. Give reasons.

2.6 SUGGESTED READINGS

Zimbardo, P.G. & Weber, A.L. (1994). *Psychology*: Harper Collins

Baron, R.A. (2005). *Psychology*: Pearson Education

Santrock, J.W. (2006). *Psychology: Essentials*: Tata McGraw-Hill

Wade, G. & Tavis, C. *Psychology*: Pearson Education.

2.7 ANSWERS TO SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

- | | | | | |
|-----------|--------|--------|--------|--------|
| 1) 1. (d) | 2. (b) | 3. (b) | 4. (c) | 5. (b) |
| 2) 1. (c) | 2. (b) | 3. (d) | 4. (a) | 5. (c) |
| 3) 1. (b) | 2. (d) | 3. (d) | 4. (c) | 5. (c) |
| 4) 1. (a) | 2. (c) | 3. (c) | 4. (b) | 5. (c) |
| 5) 1. (b) | 2. (a) | 3. (b) | 4. (c) | 5. (a) |

UNIT 3 ASSESSMENT OF PERSONALITY

Structure

- 3.0 Introduction
- 3.1 Objectives
- 3.2 Needs and Aims of Assessment
- 3.3 Methods of Personality Assessment
 - 3.3.1 Interviews
 - 3.3.2 Projective Techniques
 - 3.3.3 Classification of Projective Techniques
 - 3.3.4 Association Technique
- 3.4 Ink Blot Technique
 - 3.4.1 Construction Technique
 - 3.4.2 Completion Technique
 - 3.4.3 Expressive Techniques
 - 3.4.4 The Rorschach Inkblot Technique
 - 3.4.5 The Holtzman Inkblot Test
 - 3.4.6 The TAT
 - 3.4.7 The Sentence Completion Tests
 - 3.4.8 Limitations of the Projective Tests
- 3.5 Behavioural Assessment
 - 3.5.1 Limitations of Behavioural Assessment
- 3.6 Personality Inventories
 - 3.6.1 The Mmpi – 2
 - 3.6.2 Limitations of Personality Inventories
- 3.7 Let Us Sum Up
- 3.8 Unit End Questions
- 3.9 Glossary
- 3.10 Suggested Readings and References

3.0 INTRODUCTION

Personality assessment refers to the estimation of one's personality make up, that is the person's characteristic behaviour patterns and salient and stable characteristics. As there are different theoretical accounts of personality, and the question is how do people find out what kind of personality they have? The methods of estimating or measuring or assessing personality vary according to the theory of personality used to develop those methods.

However, most of the psychological professionals doing personality assessment do not necessarily tie themselves to one theoretical view point only, rather they prefer to take an eclectic view of personality. The eclectic view is a way of choosing the parts of different theories that seem to best fit a particular situation, rather than using only one theory to explain a phenomenon.

In fact, looking at behaviour from different perspectives can often bring insights into a person's behaviour that would not easily come from taking only one

perspective (Ciccarelli and Meyer, 2006). Therefore, many of the professional doing personality assessment use different perspectives and also take on different techniques for its assessment.

It is also important to note here that personality assessment may also differ with respect to the purposes for which it is done. For example, if the purpose is self-understanding, the person may select different tests/inventories, if the purpose is to classify person's as per their personality traits a different set of tests may be useful. Finally, if the purpose is diagnostic (clinical psychologist, counselors etc.) an entirely different set of tests may be more useful.

There are several tests/inventories which are available for the assessment of personality. Broadly, these can be grasped into one of the three categories. These are the subjective, objective and projective methods. The subjective approach incorporates the assessment of one's personality taking his/her work into account e.g. what he or she had done throughout his/her life. It may also consider his/her autobiographical accounts and biographies etc. But there is a major limitation of it that there are possibilities that the person may exaggerate his/her strengths and may minimise the account of his/her limitations and therefore we may be devoid of the true picture of personality. In personality assessment the effort is to make the assessment free from bias of any sort both from the subject/participant (whose personality is to be assessed) and from that of the assessor. It presents that there are so many such test/inventories whereby we can assess personality of a person objectively and these are the important tools for the purpose. While some tests assess the surface characteristics, others uncover the underlying aspects of personality. Among the major procedures that are in use currently, the important ones are those based on content relevance, empirical criterion keying, factor analyses, and personality theory. Personality assessment may differ in the purposes for which they are conducted. Personality assessment is used in the diagnosis of personality disorders by clinical and counseling psychologists, psychiatrists; and other psychological professionals.

3.1 OBJECTIVES

After reading this unit, you will be able to:

- Define personality assessment;
- Explain the prominent features of personality assessment;
- Explain the aims of personality assessment;
- Explain the various methods used in the assessment of personality;
- Differentiate between different types of tools of personality assessment;
- Explain projective techniques in detail; and
- Explain objective techniques in detail.

3.2 NEEDS AND AIMS OF ASSESSMENT

Testing is becoming more and more important with each growing area of psychology. Traditionally, tests were employed only to measure individual differences or intraindividual reactions under different circumstances. The nature and extent of individual differences, their possessed psychological traits,

differences among various groups etc. are becoming some of the major components demanding assessment as an aid of measurement.

Personality testing is an essential pre-requisite for identifying the various constituents of personality. Testing in personality provides measures of emotional and motivational traits of personality.

3.3 METHODS OF PERSONALITY ASSESSMENT

Some of the important tests and techniques measuring personality include (i) Interviews (ii) Projective techniques (iii) Association techniques (iv) Expressive techniques

3.3.1 Interviews

Interview is a method of personality assessment in which the interviewee has to answer the questions asked by the professional, in a structured or unstructured fashion. Some therapists note down the answers of the interviewee in a survey process. This type of interview is unstructured in manner and moves naturally.

Limitations of Interviews

Interview by the psychologist demands the report of innermost feeling, concerns and urges on the part of client. This is something that can be known directly by the client/interviewee and thus, the problems encountered with self report data like survey are faced with interviewing also. Interviewees/Clients can misinform, lie, distort the actual facts or reality and hide the true information for social desirability. Also, biases can occur on the part of the interviewers as their personal belief system or prejudices may put obstacles in the interpretation of the information given by the interviewee.

Halo effect is the other problem with interviews. Halo effect is a tendency to form a favorable or unfavorable impression of someone at the first meeting and after that first impression all of the comments and behaviour of that person are interpreted in agreement with the impression. Those who make a good first impression due to clothing, physical appearance or some other characteristic seem to have a “halo” for everything they do in a positive light.

3.3.2 Projective Techniques

These techniques are assumed to reveal those central aspects of personality that lie in the unconscious mind of an individual. Unconscious motivations, hidden desires, inner fears and complexes are presumed to be elicited by their unstructured nature that affect the client’s conscious behaviour. The assignment of a relatively unstructured task is a major distinguishing feature of projective techniques.

An unstructured task is one that permits an endless range of possible responses. The underlying hypothesis of projective techniques is that the way the test material or “structures” are perceived and interpreted by the individual, reflects the fundamental aspects of her or his psychological functioning. In other words, the test material serves as a sort of screen on which respondents “project” their characteristic thought processes, anxieties, conflicts and needs .

Clients are shown ambiguous visual stimuli by the psychologist and are asked to tell what they see in that stimuli. It is presumed that the client will project the unconscious concerns and fears onto the visual stimulus and thus the psychologist can interpret the responses and understand the psychodynamic underlying the problem of the client. Tests that utilise this method are called projective tests. These tests, besides their function of exploring one's personality, also serve as a diagnostic tool to uncover the hidden personality issues.

The history of projective techniques began in the beginning of the 15th century when Leonardo da Vinci selected pupils on the basis of their attempt to find shapes and patterns in ambiguous form (Piotrowski, 1972). In 1879, a Word association test was constructed by Gallon. Similar tests were used in clinical settings by Carl Jung. Later, Frank (1939, 1948) introduced the term projective method to describe a range of tests which could be used to study personality with unstructured stimuli.

This way, the individual has enough opportunity to project his own personality attributes which in the course of normal interview or conversation the person would not reveal. More specifically, projective instruments also represent disguised testing procedures in the sense that the test takers are not aware of the psychological interpretation to be made of their responses.

Rather than measuring the traits separately the attention is focused on the composite picture. Finally, projective techniques are an effective tool to reveal the latent or hidden aspects of personality that remain embedded in the unconscious until uncovered. These techniques are based on the assumption that if the stimulus structure is weak in nature, it allows the individual to project his/her feelings, desires and needs that are further interpreted by the experts.

Self Assessment Questions

1) What is the need for Personality Assessment?

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2) How can personality assessment prove to be an aid in understanding human behaviour?

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3) What is the underlying approach behind personality testing?

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4) What is projective technique?

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3.3.3 Classification of Projective Techniques

Various types of projective techniques have been classified into several categories by psychologists.

- i) **Constructive:** It includes all those tests and situations where the construction of some specific task is to be done by the examinee. The subject needs to frame a structure upon the situation presented by the examiner, and be asked to draw a human figure allowing the person to freely express the examiner's inclination.
- ii) **Constitutive:** This category includes those tests which require the examinee to constitute structures upon some given unstructured materials, as for example, The Rorschach Ink Blot technique. In this test the examinee imposes own structure upon the unstructured ink blots (Zubin, Eros and Schumer, 1965) and the subject's responses are scored and interpreted.
- iii) **Cathartic:** It includes those situations where the examinee can release his wishes, inner demands, conflicts etc. through some manipulative tasks.
- iv) **Interpretative:** It includes those test situations where the examinee has to add a detailed meaning to the given situation. For example, the Thematic Apperception Test (TAT) and the Word Association Test.
- v) **Refractive:** This category includes all those techniques through which the examinee gets the opportunity to depict his personality in the form of drawing, painting etc. Frank cited that graphology is the best example of this category.

If we evaluate Frank's classification, it is obvious that it consists of several limitations. The biggest one is that according to his classification, same test can be included in two or more categories, causing considerable overlap. This way, Frank's classification is not a popular classification of projective methods.

3.3.4 Association Techniques

This category includes all those situations where responses are to be given by the examinee in the form of associations which he makes after seeing or listening to the stimulus material. E.g. The Word Association Test etc. In the Word-Association test, the examinee is provided with a number of words in the form of a list and he is required to utter the very first word that comes to his mind on listening the stimulus word. The responses in accordance with the reaction time are used for the analysis of personality of the individual.

3.4 INK BLOT TECHNIQUES

The Ink blot techniques consist of two popular techniques, that is, The Rorschach Test and The Holtzman Ink blot test. In these tests the examinee has to respond to an unstructured situation composed of some ink blots.

3.4.1 Construction Techniques

All those situations are included here in which a story is constructed by the examinee on seeing the stimulus material within some given time limit. The themes and mode of responding are considered relevant in such tests. The Thematic Apperception Test (TAT), the Object Relations Test are some of the examples of construction techniques. Some other tests like Draw-A-Person test are also included in this category. In all these tests, the examinee constructs or produces simple/complex statements in a story form or draws some picture or person.

3.4.2 Completion Techniques

These include the situations where some incomplete sentences are presented to the examinee and he can complete them in the form he desires. For example

I want,

I feel excited about.....

The subject has to fill up the blanks and the responses given by the examinee are recorded and analysed to get a picture of the individual's personality. For example, Rotter's Incomplete Sentences Blank. Some people consider it as a semi projective technique.

3.4.3 Expressive Techniques

These include those tests where some manipulative tasks are used by the examinee to depict his or her personality. Some interaction with the given material is the theme of these techniques. Some of the common expressive techniques include role playing, finger painting, play, drawing etc. The characteristic feature of expressive techniques is that the examiner pays much attention to the manner in which the given materials are manipulated by the examinee.

3.4.4 The Rorschach Inkblot Test

Rorschach inkblot test was developed in 1921 by Swiss psychiatrist Hermann Rorschach. It consists of 10 inkblots, five in black ink on a white background and five in colored inks on a white background. The Rorschach test is a measure of both the intellectual and non intellectual personality traits. While developing

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this technique, Rorschach experimented with a large number of ink blots which were administered to different psychiatric groups. On the basis of such clinical observations various psychiatric syndromes that differentiate response characteristics were taken up in the scoring system.

In the test, the subjects are asked to simply state whatever each inkblot looks like to them. Responses are scored by the psychologists using predetermined categories, on key factors such as color and shape, movement, whether the whole or part blot has been seen, and whether the response is given in content to the whole or to peculiar details in the blot.

These blots are frequently used for personality description, diagnosis of mental disorders and for behaviour predictions (Watkins et al, 1995; Wiener, 1997). The whole procedure of The Rorschach Test is a combined set of three components, viz., performance proper, inquiry, and scoring. Let us deal with each of these one by one.

Administration of Rorschach test

The administration of the Rorschach test can be put up in two stages as given below.

a) Performance proper

The examinee is asked to get seated and rapport is established with him. First plate is then handled to the client with the question “What do you think this could be?” During the process the examinee needs to be careful about the following things:

- 1) Reaction time which means the time gap between the card presentation and examinee's response. Exclamations and comments are excluded from scoring.
- 2) The position of the card is also taken account of while examinee is responding and are scored as v, ^, <, >. depending on the direction in which the card is turned.
- 3) The responses are recorded verbatim for the reason that the examiner can read it and analyse the same effectively.
- 4) The total time for which the card is kept by the subject is also recorded. The time lapsed between the presentation of the card and the first response the subject gives is called the reaction time.

On completion of the first plate, the second plate is given to the examinee and similarly all the 10 plates are presented in a sequential manner. The total number of responses is also termed as response productivity ratio and is coded as R. On a Rorschach protocol, for most adults the score varies from 15 to 30. Vague and uncertain response by the examinee is noted down to be clarified in the second stage of administration, that is, the inquiry stage.

Inquiry

It is the second stage of administration of the Rorschach test. It is taken up after obtaining responses on all the ten cards during “performance proper”. The basic purpose of conducting inquiry is to collect all the necessary information for the accurate scoring of the responses. Here, a location sheet is presented before the

examinee and he is asked to locate the part on the basis of which he has responded, so as to maintain a permanent record of the area of the blot used by the subject in responding. The questions framed for the inquiry stage are based on the examiner's skill and expertise.

Scoring of Rorschach test

The major differences among the various scoring systems of the Rorschach test flourished in 1930s to the 1960s. There is also the focus of concern for Rorschach interpretation based either on the content of the responses or on their formal characteristics, such as location, determinants, form quality, and the various quantitative summaries derived from the responses, that is, the content.

Scoring of location is important. *Location* refers to that part of the plot with which each response of the subject is associated. For example, whether the whole blot or a common detail or a usual detail has been used by the respondent and are scored as *W, D, d, Dd etc.* The determinants of the response include form, color shading and "movement" and are coded as *F, C, S, M etc.* The respondent's perception of the blot as a moving object is scored in context of "movement". The various types of movement include human movement, animal movement etc.

The form quality of responses may depict the precision with which the response match the location used, to their originality.

The treatment of content also varies from one Rorschach system to another except some major regularly employed categories. Some of the main categories are human figures, human details, animal details etc. and are coded as *H, A, Hd, Ad etc.* Some other broad scoring categories may include art objects, plants, maps, landscapes, clothing etc. For each of the 10 cards, certain specific responses are scored as popular because of their common occurrence and thus, constitute the popularity score.

Qualitative interpretations of the Rorschach scores include the association of "whole" responses with conceptual thinking. The colour responses given by the subject are indicative of the subject's emotionality and fantasy life. The entire response for all the 10 cards including the enquiry are integrated together to interpret the psychodynamics underlying the problem and also decide upon the diagnostic issues.

However, after a prolonged use of the Rorschach test as a psychometric instrument, some of the researchers found a number of difficulties inherent in the method itself, such as the variability in the total number of responses, examiner effects and interdependence of scores etc. The five major Rorschach systems in use developed in the United States show vast differences which were documented by John E. Exner, Jr. (1969). He, with his extensive investigations of clinical use of the Rorschach Test came up with a single, distilled system encompassing all the useful features being possessed by the method. Questions are also asked about the reliability and validity of the assessment done through the Rorschach Test.

In this context, it is pertinent to mention here that the Rorschach Ink blot test was never developed as a psychometric tool, rather, it was developed as an instrument to aid in the clinical diagnosis.

To briefly state about this test, it can be concluded that more research still needs to be conducted to invent a standard method of administration and scoring of the Rorschach. Test.

3.4.5 The Holtzman Inkblot Test

Holtzman et. Al. (1961) developed an inkblot test known as the Holtzman Inkblot Test (HIT). This test was developed by Holtzman in order to remove the inherent technical difficulties of the Rorschach like unlimited number of responses, poor scorer reliability etc. There are two parallel forms (A and B) having 45 cards, both colored and achromatic and markedly asymmetric. One response per card is taken by the respondent. Each response is followed by a two fold simple question : where was the percept represented in the blot and what the percept suggests about the blot ? All the responses are then classified under 22 response variables.

It has been found by many researchers that Holtzman test appears to be better standardised than the Rorschach test. Also the scorer reliability of the HIT is highly satisfactory validity data on HIT have also yielded satisfactory results. It has also overcome the problem of productivity ratio by specifying the number of responses.

Recently, Holtzman (1988) has also developed a variant of HIT called HIT 25. Consisting of 25 cards. It has been found to be successful in diagnosing schizophrenia.

3.4.6 The TAT

This test was developed by Henry Murray and his colleagues (Morgan and Murray, 1935). The Thematic Apperception Test (TAT) consists of 20 pictures which are all black and white. The people depicted in the picture are deliberately drawn in ambiguous situations. After showing the picture, a story is to be told by the client about the person or people in the picture. They have to say what is happening in the picture, what has caused the event and what could have taken place in the past and what would happen in the future. The story narrated by the client is interpreted by the psychologist, who tries to look for revealing statements and projection of the client's hidden emotions onto the characters in the pictures. In the original interpretation method of TAT scores, the examiner first determines who is the "hero", the character of either sex with whom the respondent presumably identifies himself or herself. The content of the stories is then analysed in reference to Murray's list of "needs" and "press". Achievement, affiliation and aggression are the examples of needs whereas "press" refers to environmental forces that may facilitate or interfere with need satisfaction.

However, TAT has been used extensively in the research of personality but the high variations in administration and scoring procedures associated with TAT has made it quite difficult to investigate the psychometric properties of the TAT. Nevertheless, the value of Thematic Apperception Techniques has been confirmed and also the clinical utility of various versions of the TAT both for traditional and specific applications have been established.

3.4.7 The Sentence Completion Tests

Other than these two well-known projective tests, there are some other types of projective tests which include Sentence Completion test, Draw-A-Person test,

and House-Tree-Person Test. In the sentence completion test, verbal material is used. Various incomplete sentences are given to the subject to complete them. Some of the incomplete sentences are like example given below:

I feel very,

I wish my mother....

The subject is asked to complete the sentence the way he/she desires. In the Draw-A-Person and House-Tree-Person, the client is supposed to draw the named items on a white sheet.

3.4.8 Limitations of the Projective Tests

Projective tests are basically subjective in nature and the interpretation of the answers of clients needs deep analytic and artistic traits. Reliability and validity related problems always exist in projective tests. There are no standard grading scales for projective tests. Person's varying mood may decide the person's answer which may vary considerably from one day to another.

Some situational variables like the examiner's physical characteristics are likely to influence the responses on projective techniques. It has also been seen that the changed instructions on the part of examiner also influence the examinee's scores on projective techniques to a great extent.

Finally, in the words of Eysenck (1959), projective techniques can be summarised as those in which the relationship between projective indicators and personality traits have not been demonstrated by any empirical evidences.

A number of evidences show that most studies of projective techniques are guided by methodological flaws and are ill designed.

Projective techniques are not guided by any consistent, meaningful and testable theories.

There is no evidence showing a relationship between global interpretation of projective techniques by experts and psychiatrists.

Generally, projective techniques have poor predictive ability regarding failure or success in various walks of life.

Self Assessment Questions

- 1) Define Projective techniques as a tool of assessment.

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2) Explain various projective techniques in detail.

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3) Discuss the classification of projective techniques according to various researchers.

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4) Critically evaluate various personality testing procedures.

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3.5 BEHAVIOURAL ASSESSMENT

Behaviorists assume that personality is a composite set of learned responses to stimuli in the environment, they undertake to watch such behaviour as a preferred method to study.

One of the methods is direct observation, that requires the psychologist to observe the client while engaged in ordinary, daily-routine behaviour, at home, school, workplace or any other natural setting.

Among other methods often used by behavioural therapists are rating scales and frequency counts. In a rating scale, either the psychologist or the client assigns a numeric rating or some specific behaviour. On the other hand, in a frequency count, the frequency of certain behaviours in a specified time limit is counted.

Both rating scales and frequency counts are being used by educators in the diagnosis of various behavioural problems like attention deficit disorder etc.

3.5.1 Limitations of Behavioural Assessment

Observer bias is the major limitation of behavioural assessments.

In observational method, there is no control over the external environment and this may lead to interpret the events in fruitless direction.

3.6 PERSONALITY INVENTORIES

Personality inventory is a printed form that consists of a set of statements or questions applying to human behaviour. The list of questions is a standard one and requires specific answers such as “yes”, “no” and “cannot decide”. As the questions demand close-ended answers, these assessments are quite objective in nature.

Cattell’s 16PF is one such personality inventory. NEO-PI by Costa and McCrae (2000) has been revised, which is based on the five factor model of personality traits. Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) is another commonly used inventory.

Introversion, Extraversion (I/E) is a classic dimension that began with Jung and is represented in nearly every personality theory, including the Big Five. The sensing / intuition (S/I), thinking / feeling (T/P), Introversion / Extroversion (I/E) and Perceiving/Judging (P/J) are the four dimensions that can differ for each individual resulting in ISTJ, ISTP, ISFP, ISFJ personality types possibly (Briggs and Myers, 1998). For example, an ESTJ is an organiser, practical in nature and energetic in activity, an ESTJ is also a good school administrator.

Eysenck Personality Questionnaire (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1993), the California Psychological Inventory (Gough, 1995) and the Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire (Cattell, 1994) are some other common personality tests.

3.6.1 The MMPI-2

Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory, Version-II or MMPI-2 is the most common personality inventory. It tests specifically, the abnormality inventory. It tests specifically, the abnormal behaviour patterns in personality MMPI-2 consists of 567 statements such as “I believe I am being plotted against”. The answers to the statements must be in “true”, “false”, or “cannot say”. It has 10 clinical scales and eight validity scales besides various subscales. Each scale tests a particular kind of behaviour. Ranging from mild to more serious disorders such as schizophrenia and depression, are assessed using this inventory.

Validity scales ascertain that whether the person taking the inventory is responding honestly or not. For example, if one of the statements is “I am contended with whatever I have” and a person responds “true” to that statement, gets into suspicion that the person is lying. If several of validity scale questions are answered in this manner, it clearly depicts that the person is not being honest.

3.6.2 Limitations of Personality Inventories

Personality inventories have certain advantages over projective tests and interviews in the sense that inventories are standardised. Also, observer bias and interpretation bias are not possible due to their objective frame. Inventories are also superior to projective tests in terms of validity and reliability (Anastasi & Urbina, 1997).

However, there are some problems with inventories too. Even though, good at validity end, some people still fake their answers and respond in socially acceptable ways. Also, some people follow a regular course of answering the statements without actually considering them, there as others may pick statements to answer at random rather than answering each and every statement.

Block-1 Personality: Theories and Assessment

Though, the tasks of personality assessment and measurement is a skilled and sophisticated one, today predictions of behaviour are based on measurement of personality.

Self Assessment Questions

- 1) Explain the meaning of personality inventories.

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- 2) Discuss the nature of personality inventories.

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- 3) Critically evaluate different personality inventories.

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- 4) Critically evaluate behavioural assessment method.

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3.7 LET US SUM UP

All types of personality tests available possess certain difficulties which are both of theoretical and practical in nature. Every approach comes up with certain advantages and disadvantages. However, personality measurement research has gained enough importance. Still various devices are in the process of improvement.

Some upcoming trends in personality testing include increasing evidence of mutual influence between emotional and cognitive traits. Second, development of a comprehensive model relating to human activity subsuming all sorts of basic research on both emotional and cognitive traits.

3.8 UNIT END QUESTIONS

- 1) What are the advantages and limitations of using interviews as a tool of personality assessment?
- 2) How can projective tests be used to explore personality?
- 3) What are the problems encountered in using projective tests?
- 4) How can behavioural assessments be used in personality testing?
- 5) What are the different kinds of personality inventories used in personality assessment?
- 5) How can further research in personality testing prove useful in enriching the existing personality assessment procedures?

3.9 GLOSSARY

Method	: Procedures of gathering information in any field of study.
Interview	: A method of personality assessment in which the interviewer asks questions to the clients and the client is allowed to answer either in a structured or an unstructured fashion.
Halo effect	: Tendency of an interviewer to allow positive characteristics of a client to influence the assessments of client behaviour and statements.
Projective tests	: Assessment of personality that presents ambiguous visual stimuli to the client and ask the client to respond with whatever comes to his mind.
Rorschach ink blot test	: Projective test that uses 10 ink blots as the ambiguous stimuli.
Thematic Apperception test	: Projective test that uses 20 pictures of persons in ambiguous situations as the visual stimuli.
Personality Inventory	: Paper and pencil tests that consist of statements requiring a specific and standardised response from the person taking the test.

3.10 SUGGESTED READINGS AND REFERENCES

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UNIT 4 KEY ISSUES IN PERSONALITY

Structure

- 4.0 Introduction
- 4.1 Objectives
- 4.2 Genes and Personality
 - 4.2.1 Nature vs. Nurture Debate
 - 4.2.2 The Nature Theory – Heredity
 - 4.2.3 The Nurture Theory – Environment
 - 4.2.4 Twin Studies
 - 4.2.5 Infant Shyness
 - 4.2.6 Anti-social Personality Disorder
 - 4.2.7 Family Studies
- 4.3 The Person-Situation Controversy
 - 4.3.1 The Behavioural Consistency Controversy
- 4.4 Interactionist Approach to Situation versus Person Debate
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- 4.7 Personality Traits and Five Factor Model
 - 4.7.1 The Five Factor Model Across Cultures
- 4.8 Issues Relating to Theoretical Models
- 4.9 Let Us Sum Up
- 4.10 Unit End Questions
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- 4.12 Suggested Readings and References

4.0 INTRODUCTION

Besides the grand theories in personality, there is much more to be incorporated in the study of personality. There are several issues in the study of personality that have either remained unresolved or are still in the process of resolution. In this unit you will learn about the impact of heredity on personality and the various research studies that have been conducted to ascertain the relationship between these two factors. The unit also gives a glimpse of the heredity versus environment debate and points out the many research work in regard to this area and the conclusions that have been arrived at based on the research. An attempt has also been made in this unit to present the person versus situation controversy wherein it has been pointed out as to how the consistency in behaviour across situations is questioned. The interactionist approach in regard to this issue has been elaborated. This unit also presents the idiographic versus nomothetic approach to personality in which context the cross cultural issues have also been dealt with. The research in the five factor model's explanation of personality have been listed and it has been pointed out as how this theory has been more popular and the reasons for the same.

4.1 OBJECTIVES

After reading this unit, you will be able to:

- Describe the various issues in personality;
- Explain the controversies in the study of personality;
- Analyse the various sub-issues still unanswered in the field of personality; and
- List out the ways to fill up the lacunae existing in personality research.

Some of the major issues in personality research are being discussed in the following sections:

4.2 GENES AND PERSONALITY

Nature versus nurture is probably the oldest issue in psychology. This is an age old dispute among behavioural psychologists, philosophers, theologians, and theorists of consciousness. “Nature versus nurture” is a term coined by the English Victorian Polymath Francis Galton regarding the influence of heredity and environment on the development of personality. .

4.2.1 Nature versus Nurture Debate

The nature versus nurture debate basically relates to the relative importance of an individual’s inherent traits versus the personal experiences that lead to individual differences in physical and behavioural traits.

Some scientists are of the view that genetic predispositions or even animal instincts are the push factors behind people’s behaviour. Others believe that the way one behaves is directly dependent upon the manner in which the person has been taught to behave. The former is known as the “nature” theory of human behaviour whereas the latter is termed as the “nurture” theory of human behaviour. Sir Francis Galton was fascinated by the idea of genetic pre-programming and tried to uncover the predestined ways of human beings. However, many of his experiments proved ill-conceived but yet his contribution has been vital to the study of personality issues. The technique of finger printing and the Word Association Test are the end products of Galton’s contribution.

It has been stated that at the time of birth the child has no specific traits except that it functions through its reflexes. As the child grows day by day, and in the process of socialisation it learns many things in regard to the environment. It is said that the child thus at birth is in a blank state of mind or ‘tabula rasa’, and whatever one wants to put into it, the same would be absorbed and the child’s behaviour accordingly will change. This view which holds that “nurture” yields all or almost all the behavioural traits in the individual child. Thus the environment (nurture) plays a significant role in the development of the child’s personality.

However, the fast growing understanding of the human genome has come up with the information that both the sides are right in their own part. Whereas nature provides us with inherent abilities and traits, nurture reshapes these genetic tendencies and molds them with progressive learning and maturity. This view

point which agrees that both nature and nurture play crucial roles in human personality development has come to be known as interactionism.

4.2.2 The Nature Theory – Heredity

It has been demonstrated by scientists that traits such as eye color and hair color are decided by specific genes that are embedded and encoded in each human cell. The things have been taken a step further by the nature theory that formulates in more recent times it has also been shown that the more abstract traits such as intelligence, personality, aggression and sexual orientation are also encoded in an individual's DNA. This has led to the concept of behavioural genes which can justify criminal acts or criminal behaviours.

Another debated issue in context of nature theory is the occurrence of “gay gene” that points to a genetic component to sexual orientation.

If there is no role of genetics, then fraternal twins brought up under the same environmental conditions, would be alike, even though differences exist in their genetic make up. But, according to the studies, they closely resemble each other as compared to non-twin brothers and sisters.

4.2.3 The Nurture Theory – Environment

The proponents of the nurture theory are of the view that genetic tendencies ultimately do not matter. They believe that our behavioural aspects originate only from the environmental forces in our upbringing.

American psychologist John Watson, a strong proponent of environmental learning, demonstrated that disorders like phobia could also be explained by classical conditioning.

Today, known as the Father of Behavioral Science, B.F. Skinner proved that human behaviour could be conditioned in much the same way as animals.

Even if reared apart, identical twins should have been exactly the same in all respects if environment had no role to play.

4.2.4 Twin Studies

Twin studies are an important tool in resolving the nature versus nurture argument. Identical twins or Monozygotic twins, are siblings who have exact duplicates of their genotypes. They best indicate that whether biological dispositions affect traits and psychopathology in human beings.

Fraternal twins, dizygotic twins share exactly half the number of genes with each other. They are a very good basis for comparison of identical twins. Twin studies usually rely on samples of identical and fraternal twins. Some of the important studies on twins and related findings are presented below.

A study was conducted to determine the heritability of attitudes among twins, as well as the genetic variables, such as intelligence, that can play a role in affecting the attitudes among pairs of twins. The results of the study showed partial correlation between the attitudes of the participants with their genetic factors. Also, correlation existed between the attitudes related to self-reported perspectives or to activities. For example, the subjects were asked to rate themselves on the

trait of sociability through a survey. The trait was correlated with 5 out of 6 attitudes factors that the subjects had towards sociability.

It was also found that non-shared environment experiences between pairs are the strongest cause of attitude variances that overshadowed genetic predispositions as well as shared environment experiences (Olson et al., 2001). Non-shared environment refers to a condition in which something in the environment directly affects one twin but no impact occurs on the other at all (Van denOord, 2000).

A Swedish study was conducted to measure personality traits of extraversion and neuroticism among the twin pairs, impulsivity trait and family environment and socio-economic status. The findings showed that the genotypes and the environment interaction is an important concept in twin studies as it can also be applied to the way people with the same genotypes might respond to similar environment.

Our particular genotype environment, labeled Type I, indicates that the environment plays a more significant role with a genotype for low scores on a specific personality trait. It means that individuals with low genotypes for extraversion would also score low on extraversion. Type-II genotype that is, the environment interaction, on the other hand, is exactly the opposite of Type-I.

4.2.5 Infant Shyness

An adoption study was conducted to uncover the reasons behind why some infants are open and responsive to attention, some take a bit longer to open up while some others are withdrawn. It is difficult to tell whether babies are shy because of the environment in which they are brought up as their mothers are shy or because they inherit the shyness traits from their mothers.

Adoptive parents were given questionnaires that asked them to rate their infants on the measure of shyness. The results revealed that in non-adoptive families, the parents with high shyness rates also had shy infants. One significant conclusion revealed that those biological mothers who rated high on shyness, had their adopted babies as also shy. This shows some evidence of the effect of a genetic link on family environment (Daniels & Plomin, 1985).

4.2.6 Anti-social Personality Disorder

Attempts have been made to see whether children who are at risk for antisocial personality disorder develop symptoms in an adoptive family or gets protection against the disorder in such environment. Results have revealed that anti-social personality disorder is more prevalent in adopted children having biological risk factors. Results further revealed that if both the biological parents and adoptive parents come from criminal background, there is high incidence of an element of criminal tendencies in the offspring.

For various reasons the interpretation of the results of adoption studies is very difficult and valid conclusions cannot be made. Genetic factors are “simulated” when the adoptive family environment is similar to the biological environment.

4.2.7 Family Studies

However, not as valid as twin and adoption studies, but still family studies play an important role in resolving the heredity versus environment debate. These are

mainly used to identify the degree of risk of developing mental disorders by relatives and other family members. Such studies are mainly used to determine the risk of inheritance of mental disorders to offspring within families. These types of studies are performed using molecular genetic studies where the DNA from the participant's blood samples is taken and the observed behaviour is projected.

Self Assessment Questions

1) What role does heredity play in the shaping of one's personality?

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2) What role does environment play in the constitution of one's personality?

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3) Discuss the nature-nurture debate in the study of personality.

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4) How do genes affect the psychopathology of behaviour?

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5) What does the genotype – environment interaction convey regarding personality?

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4.3 THE PERSON-SITUATION CONTROVERSY

The person situation debate was sparked off by a prominent book by Mischel in 1968, in which the trait approach to personality was targeted. According to Mischel, the traits when rated, do not predict the actual behaviour. Opposed to Mischel's view, Epstein, in 1983, argued that although traits do not predict single behaviour, they are good at predicting aggregates of such behaviours.

Broady and Ehrlichman (1998) devised the following hypothetical study to test whether traits are good at predicting behaviour across not only in the same situation, but also across different situations. For this, the following steps were taken:

Step 1: Obtained measures of behaviour for a group of individuals in each of twenty situations that were assumed to be relevant to the trait of conscientiousness.

Step 2: Assumed further that each individual has been observed several times in a situation and that the measure of behaviour in a situation for each individual is based on an aggregate index of behaviour.

Step 3: The set of situations was divided into two arbitrary groups of ten each.

Step 4: Obtained two aggregated indices of conscientiousness for each individual by averaging the person's score for each of the two groups of ten situations.

Step 5: Obtained a correlation between the two indices.

Step 6: Obtained an overall index of conscientiousness for each individual by averaging the aggregated behavioural measures for each of the twenty situations studied.

The findings showed that the person situation debate was an extended disagreement, originally between social psychologists and personality psychologists, on whether the "situation" or the personality traits are more predictive of people's behaviour.

Mischel argued that (1) literature review shows that personality traits only have a correlation of about .30 with how people behave in a given situation, and (2) the cross-situational consistency of behaviour is also just .20-.30. So, he concluded that situations, rather than personality traits are better predictors of behaviour.

These arguments further generated a lot of response from personality psychologists using trait questionnaires for several decades. Those on the side of personality argued that the low personality-behaviour correlations do not prove that situational variables are more valuable.

The actual relationship between personality and behaviour was found to be higher than .40.

Personality is a stronger predictor of behaviour across all situations but not a strong predictor of an individual's behaviour at a specific time in a specific situation.

Personality traits are the most useful psychological tools that predict behaviour most strongly.

4.3.1 The Behavioural Consistency Controversy

Departing from the trait approaches view that internal relatively stable forces of personality exert a consistent effect on behaviour, another view proposes that no consistent traits are reflected by an individual's responses to any situation, rather traits vary according to the situation.

Hartshorne and May (1928) conducted a classic study on honesty in children. Children were exposed to situations where they could get a chance to behave dishonestly and that too without getting detected. The results showed that the children were not consistent on either of the ends (honestly or dishonesty), but they behaved specific to the situation. It was proposed by Walter Mischel (1968, 1978) that people can learn to make quite different responses to similar stimuli as per past reinforcements provided to them. So, before deciding a person's response to any specific stimuli, the perceptual and cognitive process should be taken into account.

According to Mischel, the significance of situational variables or personality variables should be determined while conducting research in personality. It is basically determined by the strength and weakness of the situation. If everyone makes the same interpretation and draws uniform expectancies to a situation presented to them, then situational variables stand more important. On the other hand, ambiguity in situations represents greater influence of personality variables in behaviour.

Later on Mischel (1985) also proposed that people exhibit consistent modes of responding, implying that consistency appears in situations where people behave inadequately. Researchers like Magnusson and Endler (1977) also believe that prediction of behaviour is done not only in terms of traits or situations alone, rather some combination (interaction) of the two must be attended and referred to. Various theories are now being developed that follow the interactionist approach.

4.4 INTERACTIONIST APPROACH TO SITUATION VS. PERSON DEBATE

If one formulates that traits and situations interact to influence behaviour, then the formula for this could be as given below:

$$\text{Behavior} = \text{personality} \times \text{appraisal of the situation.}$$

It is an important fact that individual differences exist in personality-situation relationship. High self monitors try to adapt more to the situation and thus, display less consistency across situations in their behaviour.

Thus one may state that some individuals show more consistent behaviour and that traits do not influence behaviour consistently and emerge only in some situations. Another aspect is that whatever people do, it exhibits their traits. e.g. choice of careers, choice of lifestyle etc.

Almost all researches have demonstrated that personality traits exist and are predictive of behaviour. Some research has shown the correlation between situations and behavioural outcomes to be ranging from 0.36 to 0.42 which is

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almost identical to predictive power of personality traits. How far situations determine behaviour even against one's value system is an important issue here.

In this context, one of the studies was on the obedience factor carried out by Stanley Milgram in which he used fake electric shock to study how people react when they cause harm to others. Given in the box below is the experiment:

The psychologist Stanley Milgram created an electric 'shock generator' with 30 switches. The switch was marked clearly in 15 volt increments, ranging from 15 to 450 volts.

He also placed labels indicating the shock level, such as 'Moderate' (75-120 Volts) and 'Strong' (135-180 Volts). The switches 375-420 Volts were marked 'Danger: Severe Shock' and the two highest levels 435-450, was marked 'XXX'.

The 'shock generator' was in fact phony and would only produce sound when the switches were pressed.

40 subjects participated all males. They thought they were going to participate in an experiment about 'memory and learning'. Next, the subject met an 'experimenter', the person leading the experiment, and another person told to be another subject. The other subject was in fact a confederate(experimenter's man) acting as a subject. He was a 47 year old male accountant.

The two subjects (the real subject and the confederate subject) drew slips of paper to indicate who was going to be a 'teacher' and who was going to be a 'learner'. The lottery was in fact a set-up, and the real subject would always get the role of 'the teacher'.

The teacher saw that the learner was strapped to a chair and electrodes were attached. The subject was then seated in another room in front of the shock generator, unable to see the learner.

The Stanley Milgram Experiment aimed at getting an answer to the question: *"For how long will someone continue to give shocks to another person if they are told to do so, even if they thought they could be seriously hurt?"* (the dependent variable)

Remember that they had met the other person, a likable stranger, and that they thought that it could very well be them who were in the learner-position receiving shocks.

The subject was instructed to teach word-pairs to the learner. When the learner made a mistake, the subject was instructed to punish the learner by giving him a shock, 15 volts higher for each mistake.

The learner never received the shocks, but pre-taped audio was triggered when a shock-switch was pressed.

If the experimenter, seated in the same room, was contacted, the experimenter would answer with predefined 'prods' ("Please continue", "Please go on", "The experiment requires that you go on", "It is absolutely essential that you continue", "You have no other choice, you must go on"), starting with the mild prods, and making it more authoritarian for each time the subject contacted the experimenter.

If the subject asked who was responsible if anything would happen to the learner, the experimenter answered “I am responsible”. This gave the subject a relief and many continued.

During the Stanley Milgram Experiment, many subjects showed signs of tension. 3 subjects had “full-blown, uncontrollable seizures”.

Although most subjects were uncomfortable doing it, all 40 subjects obeyed up to 300 volts.

25 of the 40 subjects continued to complete to give shocks until the maximum level of 375 volts was reached.

Before the Stanley Milgram Experiment, experts thought that about 1-3 % of the subjects would not stop giving shocks. They thought that you’d have to be pathological or a psychopath to do so.

Still, 65 % never stopped giving shocks. None stopped when the learner said he had heart-trouble. How could that be?

We now believe that it has to do with our almost innate behaviour that we should do as told, especially from authority persons.

Source: <http://www.experiment-resources.com/stanley-milgram-experiment.html#ixzz13wADcJx9>

However, the end of the debate was not completely one sided. It has also been argued that trait psychologists could still not explain why behaviour has low consistency over short periods, remaining at 0.30 ranges. On the other hand, situations could also no longer take a stand that traits are not as important as situations. This state of affairs made out a resolution that changed the conceptions of psychologists of both traits and situations.

Regarding traits, psychologists learned that they do not have cross cultural consistency for individual behaviours, but over time, they create consistency for wide behaviour distributions. For situations, psychologists learned that situations are not the only thing that matters.

On the basis of these formulations, a new definition of personality can be framed which states that personality is one’s pattern of behavioural stability and change due to the unique combination of having certain traits and being in certain situations. Therefore, the current requirement in the area of personality is to understand which of the person and situation forces account for patterns of stability and change in behaviour.

The person-situation debate was a challenging task yet ultimately constructive argument for personality psychology (Fleeson, 2004). By forcing psychologists to think carefully about the links between behaviour, personality and situations, the person-situation debate acted as a catalyst for a deeper appreciation of the importance of personality and for a more sophisticated understanding of why people do what they do.

4.5 NOMOTHETIC APPROACH VERSUS IDIOGRAPHIC APPROACH TO PERSONALITY

Personality related psychological research and studies are grouped in three main groups, viz., (i) nomothetic, (ii) idiographic and (iii) complementary approaches to personality.

4.5.1 Nomothetic Approach

Nomothetic approaches are based on the tendency to see one's personality as constant, hereditary and resistant to change, whereas the influence of the environment is minimal. This way, nomothetic approaches state that the way in which a person will act under certain circumstances can be calculated and anticipated, foreseen. Gordon Allport (1934) identified this approach to personality testing. The nomothetic approach relies on quantitative research methods such as self report and questionnaires to establish universal behaviours. He understood that scientific progress for trait psychology was rooted in a nomothetic approach.

Thus, nomothetically derived traits were employed by Allport to describe people. Allport (1937, 1961) employed traits as the primary basis which can be used to describe people. Accordingly, he described a trait as a “neuropsychic structure that possesses the capacity to render many stimuli functionally equivalent. Allport also assumed that traits are real. He formulated that traits are distinct and particular to each person and their assessment shall be done uniquely.

4.5.2 Idiographic Approach

Allport also promoted another approach named as idiographic approach to the study of personality. Here every individual is regarded as a combined system that can be independently analysed scientifically. It means that each individual is examined deeply and no general laws are considered important that are beyond the individual to be studied.

Under the idiographic process, he believed that a person's traits can be put into various compartments according to their pervasiveness in an individual's personality. The most pervasive traits were referred to as “cardinal” dispositions by Allport. If present, cardinal traits dominate the behaviour of an individual aggressiveness, calmness etc. may be taken as examples. Another set of traits, known as “central dispositions” comprise those that are pervasive for a given individual. For example, the traits talked about while writing a letter of recommendation. More situational specific traits are termed as “Secondary dispositions”. Allport argued that each person possesses a unique pattern of cardinal, central and secondary traits and to understand a person, the unique-pattern examination is required.

Thus, the above discussion explains that the differences between a nomothetic and an idiographic approach is not just a question of discovering on the part of the psychologist, but also the methods employed are considered useful.

The nomothetic point of view has experiments, correlation, psychometric testing and other quantitative methods as its examples. On the other hand, the idiographic methods include case studies, informal interviews, unstructured observation and other qualitative methods.

Self Assessment Questions

- 1) What is the person-situation controversy?

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- 2) What- the person or the environment exert more influence in structuring a person's personality?

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- 3) How does the interactionist approach handle the person-situation debate?

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- 4) Discuss the nomothetic view to personality.

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- 5) Discuss the idiographic view to personality.

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4.6 CROSS CULTURAL ISSUES

Personality and culture are interwoven and still their relationship cannot be comprehended well. But it is also true that the culture of an individual is not the sole determiner of an individual's personality. The framework of individualism versus collectivism can be utilised to observe this as it predisposes individualism or collectivism. It is one of basic differences that have been described in varying national cultures. Factors such as personal achievement, egalitarian relationships, role flexibility team and familial connections etc. are used to describe personality traits and differences between individuals of various cultures (Hofstede, 2001). However, it is not possible to attribute all the factors under individualism-collectivism web only to the cultural influence. The framework of individualism

collectivism is mainly used to describe personality characteristics traits and habits generating from within cultures where certain individualist or collectivist traits occur.

An element of doubt gets raised up while applying the principles of this framework in personality perception of an individual as it may lead to stereotyping and misinterpreting of an individual's personality and his characteristic of behaviour. The individualism framework can be of more use in describing cultural tendencies as a whole rather than describing individual characteristics and traits. However, this does not imply that the individualism collectivism paradigm is naïve and can be excluded in studying the domain of personality. It can be easily inferred from the above discussion that the interplay between personality and culture is quite complex. It is also clear that even in adulthood, personality can be affected by cultural expectations. Simultaneously, this is also to be acknowledged that this individualism -collectivism orientation is not the only determining factor of personality.

4.7 PERSONALITY TRAITS AND FIVE FACTOR MODEL

As defined by McCrae & Costa in 1990, "Personality traits are the dimensions of individual differences in tendencies to show consistent patterns of thoughts feelings and actions." Psychologists working in the area of personality like Raymond Cattell, Eysenck have noted that organisation of traits can be done in much smaller clusters of similar trait rather than studying each of the 4,000 traits as identified by Allport and Odbert. Thus, a parsimonious structure of traits can help a great deal in personality research.

Ending the decades long dispute about the most suitable personality structure, the Five Factor Model developed by McCrae & John, 1992 came up with five factors or dimensions viz. Neuroticism (N), Extroversion (E), Openness to Experience (O), Agreeableness (A) and conscientiousness (C). Individuals high in neuroticism are likely to be anxious, irritable and low at emotional end and those low in neuroticism are calm and emotionally stable. Extroverts are sociable, cheerful and outgoing; introverts are shy and sober. Open men and women are curious whereas closed people are run by conventions. Agreeable people are compassionate, modest whereas conscientious are mainly driven by punctuality and purposefulness.

Originally, the five factor model was discovered by analysing the English language trait names and individuals standing on each of the five factors could be measured by asking them to rate themselves on a series of adjectives (Goldberg, 1992). The most widely used measure of the Five Factor Model is the Revised NEO Personality Inventory (NEO-PI-R, Costa & McCrae, 1992). It assesses 30 specific traits, six for each of the five factors.

4.7.1 The Five Factor Model Across Cultures

Personality factors in trait adjectives from different languages have been examined with lexical studies and mixed results have surfaced from these studies which show that E, A and C factors almost always appear but N and O disappear from the picture sometimes. It is not clear whether these factors are not there in the culture itself or are missing from the set of adjectives studied.

Thus, great caution should be used while comparing the personality scores across cultures. Personality traits are expressed differently in different cultures and a single set of questionnaire items does not suffice in every culture.

Self Assessment Questions

- 1) Discuss the cross- cultural issue in personality.

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- 2) What does the Five- Factor Model propose regarding personality?

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- 3) Discuss the characteristic issue underlying Five- Factor Model across cultures.

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4.8 ISSUES RELATING TO THEORETICAL MODELS

For the understanding and explanation of personality, various theoretical models have been proposed. The different models have explained personality with respect to their theoretical propositions e.g. the Psychoanalytic theory explains personality taking intra-psychic and conscious-unconscious mind into account whereas the Behaviorist model totally rejects this approach and emphasises the role of learning and environment in the shaping and development of personality. The Humanistic Model takes a different approach. It is true that every model seems to be correct from its own perspective but when we consider the other models, many of their features become redundant, irrelevant and may be invalid. Therefore, one, who is interested in understanding the phenomenon of personality by going through various theoretical accounts, may not be able to have a clear view of the personality as construct. Therefore, there is a need of an eclectic model which incorporates the features of various models into it and aids in shaping of personality.

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Some other issues in personality that need to be attended to at length are:

- 1) *Free will vs determinism*. Means that whether our behaviour is directed by freedom intrinsic to our nature or by the ultimately determined forces.
- 2) *Uniqueness vs Universality*. Implies that whether each person is unique in his own existence or is driven by some universal behaviour patterns.
- 3) *Physiological vs purposive motivation*. Some researchers assume that we are pushed by basic physiological needs like food, water etc. while others are of the view that we are pulled by our purpose, goals, values, principles etc.
- 4) *Conscious vs Unconscious motivation*. Some researchers believe that our behaviour and experience are determined by conscious forces whereas others say that we are not aware of the forces driving our behaviour, i.e. the unconscious element.
- 5) *Stage vs Non-stage theories of development*. It is an extension of the nature nurture issue that whether or not we all pass through predetermined stages of development like fetal, childhood, puberty, adulthood, senescence-controlled basically by genetics.
- 6) *Cultural determinism vs Cultural transcendence*. To what extent our personality is molded by our cultures is the issue here. If not determined by culture, our transcendence is some other kind of determinism.
- 7) *Early Vs Late Personality Formation*. This issue deals with if our personality characteristics are established in early childhood or it is quite flexible in adulthood. This question relates to the issues of genetics, external determination etc. Here, the major limitation resolution is the confusion in defining personality characteristics.
- 8) *Optimism Vs Pessimism*. Whether humans are basically good or bad is the central issue here. The attitude determines what we see when we look at humanity.

4.9 LET US SUM UP

To sum up, it can be said that the issues in personality consider classic and more recent issues that are fundamental to the field of personality psychology. However, various theorists have contributed to our understanding of personality but their varying view points have led to various controversies that are still posing a challenge to the area of personality. These issues need a timely resolution so that the research in personality could be more refined and stable and the core areas could be dealt with more precision and flawlessly.

4.10 UNIT END QUESTIONS

- 1) Discuss the Nature- Nurture debate in the study of personality.
- 2) Discuss with examples what role does the environment play in molding an individual's personality.
- 3) What does the person-situation controversy depict about personality structure of a person?

- 4) “The interactionist approach gives a mid-way to person- situation controversy” . Discuss.
- 5) “The cross-cultural issue in personality is difficult to be resolved” . Why?
- 6) What are the theoretical and methodological flaws in personality research?
- 7) What does the nomothetic versus idiographic debate in personality present?
- 8) What role can the Five- Factor Model play in resolving the Theoretical controversy in personality research?

4.11 GLOSSARY

Idiographic approach	: The psychological study of the single case/ individual.
Genes	: The essential elements in the transmission of hereditary characteristics.
Nature	: The genetic factors contributing to behaviour and perception.
Nature vs Nurture controversy	: The argument concerning the relative roles of the contributions of nature and nurture in the development of organisms.
Nomothetic approach	: Attempts to discover personality principles that apply to people in general.
Nurture	: Environmental factors contributing to behaviour and perception.
Personality	: The various enduring and distinctive patterns of behaviour and thought that are characteristic of a particular person.

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UNIT 1 PSYCHODYNAMIC THEORY (INCLUDING HORNEY AND SULLIVAN)

Structure

- 1.0 Introduction
- 1.1 Objectives
- 1.2 Sigmund Freud's Psychoanalytic Theory
 - 1.2.1 Structure of Personality
 - 1.2.2 Topographical Model (State of Consciousness)
- 1.3 Dynamic or Structural Model
 - 1.3.1 Dynamics of Personality
 - 1.3.1.1 Defense Mechanisms
 - 1.3.2 Development of Personality
 - 1.3.3 Evaluation of Freud's Theory
- 1.4 Karen Horney: Social Foundation of Personality
 - 1.4.1 Basic Anxiety
 - 1.4.2 Neurotic Needs
 - 1.4.3 Theory of the Self
 - 1.4.4 Evaluation
- 1.5 Sullivan's Theory of Personality
 - 1.5.1 Dynamics of Personality
 - 1.5.2 Enduring Aspects of Personality
 - 1.5.2.1 Dynamism
 - 1.5.2.2 Self-system
 - 1.5.2.3 Personifications
 - 1.5.2.4 Developmental Epochs
 - 1.5.2.5 Evaluation
- 1.6 Let Us Sum Up
- 1.7 Unit End Questions
- 1.8 Glossary
- 1.9 Suggested Readings

1.0 INTRODUCTION

The psychodynamic perspective includes all the theories in psychology that see human functioning based upon the interaction of drives and forces within the person, particularly the unconscious factors and the interaction amongst the different structures of personality. Freud's psychoanalysis was the original psychodynamic theory, but the psychodynamic approach as a whole includes all theories that were based on his ideas, but modified by Jung, Adler, Erikson, Karen Horney, Erich Fromm and Sullivan.

In this unit we will be dealing three important psychodynamic theories of personality. We will, first, deal with psychoanalysis theory of Freud. Following this we will highlight the main features of Karen Horney's theory of personality, and after that we will discuss the theory of personality proposed by Sullivan.

1.1 OBJECTIVES

After reading this unit, you will be able to:

- Define and describe psychoanalytic theory of personality;
- Explain the state of consciousness;
- Analyse the structure of personality;
- Explain the use of defence mechanism;
- Describe the stages of psychosexual development;
- Delineate Karen Horney's theory of personality;
- Explain the importance and types of neurotic need;
- Describe Sullivan's theory of personality; and
- Analyse the developmental epochs proposed by Sullivan.

1.2 SIGMUND FREUD'S PSYCHOANALYTIC THEORY

There are certain assumptions that make the distinction between psychodynamic theories and other theories of personality. We may summarize these assumptions in the following way:

Our behaviour and feelings are powerfully affected by unconscious motives.

Our behaviour and feelings as adults (including psychological problems) are rooted in our childhood experiences.

All behaviour has a cause (usually unconscious), even slips of the tongue. Therefore all behaviour is determined.

Personality is made up of three parts (i.e. tripartite), the id, ego and super-ego.

Behaviour is motivated by two instinctual drives: Eros (the sex drive & life instinct) and

Thanatos (the aggressive drive & death instinct). Both these drives come from the "id".

Parts of the unconscious mind (the id and superego) are in constant conflict with the conscious part of the mind (the ego).

Personality is shaped as the drives are modified by different conflicts at different times in childhood (during psychosexual development).

The words 'psychodynamic' and 'psychoanalytic' are often confused. It should be remembered that Freud's theory is psychoanalytic, whereas the term 'psychodynamic' refers to both his theory and those of his followers. Freud's psychoanalysis is both a theory and a therapy.

Sigmund Freud (writing between the 1890s and the 1930s) developed a collection of theories which have formed the basis of the psychodynamic approach to psychology. After receiving the M.D. degree Freud started private practice. He

specialised in the treatment of emotional problems, and he began to use a number of newly developed techniques, such as hypnosis, dream analysis and free-association. Working with Viennese physician, Joseph Breuer, who had his patients simply talk about their problems. Freud saw that such conversations between physician and patient were often helpful in getting rid of certain symptoms, for example, a woman with a paralysed arm was able to use it again, and a young boy who was no longer overwhelmed by irrational fears.

Working with people suffering from mental problems, Freud became deeply interested not only providing a cure for a series of patients but also in seeking to understand how their symptoms came to be, and why talking procedure produced changed. Freud was convinced that behaviour was not a matter of chance but everything a person said or did or thought was determined by some identifiable cause. Further, it was clear to him that individuals were not often aware of the reasons for particular behaviour; that is, the causes were unconscious. Freud's task, then, was to discover the cause in order to bring it into the conscious. Beyond this, he was also working on a more ambitious task, that of building a theory of personality to explain the working of human mind. Now we will describe important concepts of his theory.

Freud's Psychoanalytic theory is described in the following three main headings:

- Structure of personality
- Dynamics of personality
- Development of personality

Now we will discuss these three in some detail.

1.2.1 Structure of Personality

In order to describe the structure of personality the following two models have been developed by Freud:

Topographical model

Dynamic or Structural model

1.2.2 Topographical Model (State of Consciousness)

Freud's topographical model represents his configuration of the mind. From his work, Freud concluded that mental functioning could be described in terms of three states of consciousness. First and most obvious, is the conscious state. This includes whatever one is thinking about at the moment. For example, you are consciously reading these pages, comprehending the words. In other words, conscious state is related to the immediate experiences. As a result conscious state represents the short and limited aspect of personality

Second is the subconscious or preconscious state, which referred to all of the stored memories which are not part of our current thoughts but which can be brought into consciousness. For example what you have taken in your breakfast today? Even though you were probably not aware about the breakfast menu before the question was asked, but it is now in your consciousness. The desires, wishes, thoughts and feelings which are not conscious at present but could be recalled after making some efforts are stored in it.

The third is the state of unconscious, containing all of the memories and desires and elements of which we are unaware. According to Freud, some of this material was never conscious, but much of it consists of material which caused so much anxiety that it was thrust out of consciousness and repressed.

Presumably, some of our hostile feelings, sexual craving, and most desperate fears are so threatening that we must repress them, keeping them under lock and key in the recesses of the unconscious. This material sometimes reaches the conscious in bits and pieces. Freud felt that this part of the mind was not directly accessible to awareness.

In part, he saw it as a dump box for urges, feelings and ideas that are tied to anxiety, conflict and pain. These feelings and thoughts have not disappeared and according to Freud, they are there, exerting influence on our actions and our conscious awareness. Material passes easily back and forth between the conscious and the preconscious. Material from these two areas can slip into the unconscious. Truly unconscious material can not be made available voluntarily, and we need a psychoanalyst to bring out the materials from the unconscious to the conscious realm.

We can use the metaphor of an iceberg to help us in understanding Freud's topographical model.

Only 10% of an iceberg is visible (conscious) whereas the other 90% is beneath the water (preconscious and unconscious).

The Preconscious is allotted approximately 10% -15% whereas the Unconscious is allotted an overwhelming 75%-80%.

1.3 DYNAMIC OR STRUCTURAL MODEL

In terms of the above three states of consciousness Freud attempted to explain a great deal of mental functioning, but later he found it useful to describe a kind of mental map involving three regions or types of mental activity. These three regions are termed as id, ego and superego. These regions are the site of constant battles in which there are conflicts amongst (i) what we desire, (ii) what can be realistically obtained, and (iii) what our moral code tells us is right or wrong. These are presented in the following paragraphs.

Id: The primary region is id. Freud proposed that the id is present at birth and is totally unconscious. It is that part of personality that deals with immediate gratification of primitive needs, sexual desires and aggressive impulses. It is governed by the pleasure principle. It demands the satisfaction of desires without regard for what is possible or what the consequences might be.

Ego: The second region is the ego. Since the id has no concern with the demands of reality or logic, so without additional mental development we could not survive. In response to early frustration, however we begin to learn something about the limitations imposed by the real world, and we find that our wishes may not always be immediately fulfilled. This coming to grips with reality was described Freud as the development of ego., which involves perception, reasoning, learning, and all other activities necessary to interact effectively with the world around us.

Thus ego develops out of id. It works on reality principle. It tries to maximise pleasure and minimise the pain.

Superego: The third region is called the superego. It ordinarily develops as children are exposed to the moral values of their parents. In this setting, the child accepts and internalises (1) the parental views of ideal behaviour and (2) their moral values as to what is right and wrong. These two aspects of superego are known as *ego-ideal* and *conscience*. Like the ego, the superego spans all three levels of consciousness. While most of us are able to verbalise our ideals and our moral system, it is also true that we are not always aware of the reasons for our strong emotional reactions on such issues. Thus superego deals with the ideals. It represents the societal demands and ideals. It is also responsible for creating the feeling of guilt and punishes the person for if he or she falls short of the societal norms and ideals.

1.3.1 Dynamics of Personality

According to Freud human organism is a complex system in which relies on both physiological energy as well as psychic energy. Physical energy is used in physical activities like running, writing, respiration etc. whereas psychic energy is used in psychological work such as planning, thinking, feeling, and remembering.

According to Freud id is the contact point of these two types of energies. Related to these energies Freud developed some concepts which explain the dynamic aspects of personality like instinct, anxiety and mental mechanisms.

Freud states that the instincts are the ultimate cause of all behaviour. The two basic instincts are Eros (love) and the Thanatos (destructive or death instinct). The purpose of Eros is to establish and preserve unity through relationships. On the other hand, the purpose of the death instinct is to undo connections and unity. The two instincts can either operate against each other through repulsion or combine with each other through attraction. Libido is the main source of psychic energy and is thought to come from these two main instincts: Eros (the life and sexual instincts) and Thanatos (death instinct).

1.3.1.1 Defense Mechanisms

Anxiety comes from realistic sources in the external world and conflict within one's own mind. A common conflict is when the id desires something that ego and/or superego do not agree with. An important function of the ego is to operate defense mechanisms. Psychological defenses are the way we deal with anxiety. Some of the important defence mechanisms are given below:

Denial: Denies source of anxiety exists (I did not fail my exam, it must be a mistake). Denial often shows up in daydreams and fantasies. Daydreaming about how things might have been is a common way we cope with anxiety by denying that things happened the way they did.

Repression: Banishing the memory: banishing old, bad memories, or even current things. (For example, you might fancy fondling the leg of the person next to you and this could cause you anxiety so you repress the desire!).

Regression: Moving back to an earlier stage (when highly stressed, we abandon adult coping strategies and move back to the stage at which we are fixated, that is, if you are stressed and if you are an oral personality, you may take to smoking. Anal character may become even more compulsive and obstinate than usual.

Reaction formation: Doing or thinking the opposite (woman who is angry with boss goes out of her way to be kind and courteous). One of the hallmarks of reaction formation is excessive behaviour.

Projection: Ascribing unwanted impulse to someone else (the unfaithful husband who is extremely jealous of his wife, always suspecting she might be unfaithful).

Rationalisation: Finding a rational explanation for something you have done wrong. (You did not fail the exam because you did not study hard enough but because the examiner set bad questions). Your boyfriend/girlfriend breaks up with you and you rationalise that you never really liked him/her that much anyway.

Intellectualisation: Turn the feeling into a thought. The person who finds his/her partner has cancer, deals with it by becoming an absolute expert on cancer and focuses on the disease intellectually rather than dealing with the emotions.

Displacement: Moving an impulse from one object (target) to another (angry with boss: go home and yell at your partner or kick the dog).

Sublimation: Transforming impulses into something constructive (Freud saw this as the most adaptive of the defense mechanisms: go out and chop wood when you are angry). Freud believed that the greatest achievements in civilisation were due to the effective sublimation of sexual and aggressive urges.

1.3.2 Development of Personality

Freud described human development as passing through a series of stages based on the different ways we obtain bodily pleasure at different stages. *Freud's Stages of Psychosexual Development* are, like other stage theories, completed in a predetermined sequence and can result in either successful completion of a healthy personality or can result in failure, leading to an unhealthy personality. This theory is probably the best known as well as the most controversial; as Freud believed that we develop through stages based upon a particular erogenous zone.

During each stage, an unsuccessful completion means that a child becomes fixated on that particular erogenous zone and either over indulges or under indulges once he or she becomes an adult. Adult personality characteristics are determined by what happens to us during each stage and how successful we are in getting through that period.

It is possible to get “stuck” at a particular stage and not progress beyond that point, a process Freud termed as fixation. It is also possible, when things go badly at a later stage, to retreat or go back to an earlier stage of development which Freud termed as regression. A brief discussion of these psychosexual stages is given below:

Oral Stage (Birth to 18 months):

This is the first stage of psychosexual development. Newborn babies are initially limited to sucking and drinking. Their sexual instinctual drive is therefore focused

around the mouth, initially in passive sucking and chewing. During this stage, the child is focused on oral pleasures (sucking). Too much or too little gratification can result in an Oral Fixation or Oral Personality, which is evidenced by a preoccupation with oral activities. This type of personality may have a stronger tendency to smoke, drink alcohol, over eat, or bite his or her nails. Personality wise, these individuals may become overly dependent upon others, gullible, and perpetual followers. On the other hand, they may also fight these urges and develop pessimism and aggression toward others.

Anal Stage (18 months to three years):

The anal stage, which occurs in toddlers, is subdivided into two phases, the expelling period, in which the child derives pleasure in expelling feces, and the retentive period, in which they derive pleasure from storing it. The anal stage coincides with toilet training in the child, and is marked by 'conflicts with parents about compliance and defiance. Thus the child's focus of pleasure in this stage is on eliminating and retaining feces. Through society's pressure, mainly via parents, the child has to learn to control anal stimulation. In terms of personality, the after effects of an anal fixation during this stage can result in an obsession with cleanliness, perfection, and control (anal retentive). On the opposite end of the spectrum, they may become messy and disorganised (anal expulsive).

Phallic Stage (ages three to six):

The phallic stage is one of the most significant in the Freudian model. The pleasure zone switches to the genitals. Children obtain pleasure from stimulating their genitals and begin to discriminate between the sex roles of their parents. Initially, a child in the phallic stage will identify with the parent of the opposite sex in what is known as the Oedipus complex. Briefly, the Oedipus complex posits that the child's urges, seek an external object. The inevitable object is the child's mother.

The Oedipal phase of the phallic stage also gives way to one in which identification with the same-sex parent occurs. Such identification helps to form perception of gender roles and personality. Freud believed that during this stage boys develop unconscious sexual desires for their mother. Because of this, the boy considers the father as a competitor to mother's affection. Later it was added that girls go through a similar situation, developing unconscious sexual attraction to their father. Although Freud Strongly disagreed with this, it has been termed the Electra Complex by more recent psychoanalysts.

According to Freud, out of fear of castration and due to the strong competition of his father, boys eventually decide to identify with their father rather than fight him. By identifying with the father, the boy develops masculine characteristics and identifies himself as a male, and represses his sexual feelings toward his mother. A fixation at this stage could result in sexual deviancies (both overindulging and avoidance) and weak or confused sexual identity according to psychoanalysts.

Latency Stage (age six to puberty):

The latency stage occurs before the onset of puberty and is marked by the dormancy of the libido. Sexual and aggressive drives are channeled into more socially acceptable substitutes. During this stage the sexual urges remain repressed and children interact and play mostly with same sex peers.

Genital Stage (puberty on): The final stage of psychosexual development begins at the start of puberty when sexual urges are once again awakened. Through the lessons learned during the previous stages, adolescents direct their sexual urges onto opposite sex peers. The primary focus of pleasure is the genital.

1.3.3 Evaluation of Freud's Theory

There are some merits as well as limitations of Freud's theory. Some of its merits are given below:

Merits:

- It is a complete theory of personality and explains behaviour.
- It emphasises the role of the unconscious and early childhood experiences.
- It emphasises dynamic nature of behaviour.
- It emphasises defense mechanisms of ego and stimulated further theoretical/research work in personality.
- It resulted in a serious interest in psychological treatment of mental disorders.

Demerits

However there are some limitations of this theory. The limitations of Freud's theory can be grouped into three general categories.

- i) Critics contend that Freud's theory is lacking in empirical evidence and relies too heavily on therapeutic achievements, whereas others assert that even Freud's clinical data are flawed, inaccurate, and selective at best.
- ii) The actual method or techniques involved in psychoanalysis, such as Freud's ideas on the interpretation of dreams and the role of free association, have been criticized.
- iii) Some critics assert that psychoanalysis is simply not a science and many of the principles upon which it is based are inaccurate.
- iv) Some of the concepts of the theory seem poorly designed. For example take the concept of 'psychic energy'. What is it? What units is it measured in?
- v) There is lack of scientific proof in the theory.
- vi) Role of environment is overlooked in formulating the theory.
- vii) Over-emphasis on sexual drive is given in the theory.
- viii) The theory pessimistic psychic determinism - is there no free will?

Self Assessment Questions

- 1) Discuss the salient features of Freud's theory of psychoanalysis.

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- 2) Explain the structure of personality in the light of Freudian psychoanalytic theory.

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- 3) Describe importance of psychosexual development in shaping the adult personality.

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- 4) What do you mean by defense mechanisms? Give appropriate examples.

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1.4 KAREN HORNEY: SOCIAL FOUNDATION OF PERSONALITY

Karen Horney was born on 16 September 1885 in Hamburg, Germany. Horney's career began at the Institute for Psychoanalysis in Berlin, where she taught from 1920 to 1932. Karl Abraham worked with her and regarded her as one of his most gifted analysts. Karen's first American job was as the Associate Director of the Chicago Institute for Psychoanalysis, a position she held for two years. The family eventually settled in what was then thought of as the intellectual capital of the world, Brooklyn. There, Karen became colleagues with distinguished men as Erich Fromm and Harry Stack Sullivan. She also had the opportunity to develop her own theories on neurosis, based on her experiences as a psychotherapist.

In addition, she taught at the New York Psychoanalytic Institute. By 1941, Horney established and became Dean of the American Institute for Psychoanalysis, a training institute for those interested in her own Association for the Advancement of Psychoanalysis, a program that resulted from her dissatisfaction with the orthodox approach to psychoanalysis; the negativity surrounding her for deviating from Freud had forced her to resign. She also founded the American Journal of

Psychoanalysis. Shortly after, she began teaching at the New York Medical College. Karen practiced, taught, and wrote up until her death in 1952.

Horney often criticized the work of Sigmund Freud. For instance, she opposed Freud's notion of penis envy, claiming that what Freud was really detecting was women's justified envy of men's power in the world. While penis envy might occur occasionally in neurotic women, she said, womb envy occurs just as much in men. Horney felt that men were envious of a woman's ability to bear children. The degree to which men are driven to succeed and to have their names live on, she said, is mere compensation for their inability to more directly extend themselves into the future by means of carrying, nurturing, and bearing children.

She did not understand why psychologists found the need to place much emphasis on men's sexual apparatus. Furthermore, Horney desexualised Freud's oedipal complex, claiming that the clinging to one parent and jealousy of the other was simply the result of anxiety caused by a disturbance in the parent-child relationship. Horney was also a pioneer in the discipline of feminine psychiatry. As one of the first female psychiatrists, she was the first of her gender to present a paper regarding feminine psychiatry. The fourteen papers she wrote between 1922 and 1937 were amalgamated into a single volume titled *Feminine Psychology*.

In her personality theory, Horney reformulated Freudian thought and presented a holistic, humanistic perspective that emphasised cultural and social influences, human growth, and the achievement of self-actualisation.

Horney's theory can be explained under the following three main headings:

- Basic Anxiety
- Neurotic Needs
- Measures to cope with anxiety

1.4.1 Basic Anxiety

Basic anxiety is an important theoretical concept in the Horney's theory of personality. Horney stated that children experience anxiety, helplessness. Without proper guidance to help children learn to cope with the threats imposed by the nature and society, they may develop the basic anxiety. According to Horney basic anxiety refers to the feeling a child has of being isolated and helpless in a potentially hostile world. A wide variety of adverse factors in the environment can produce this insecurity in a child.

Horney also listed the adverse factors of the environment that cause basic anxiety. These factors are: direct or indirect domination, erratic behaviour, lack of respect for child's individual needs, lack of real guidance, disparaging attitudes, too much admiration or absence of it, lack of reliable warmth, having to take sides in parental disagreements, too much or too little responsibility, overprotection, isolation from other children, injustice, discrimination, unkept promise, hostile atmosphere.

All these adverse factors are termed by Horney as basic evil. When a child experiences the basic evil it naturally provokes resentment or basic hostility. This in turn produces a dilemma or conflict for the child, because expressing the hostility would risk punishment and withdrawal of parental love. Thus the child

faces a conflicting situation between the resentment and love. This situation is similar to Freudian conflict between instinctual impulse and internalised prohibition.

1.4.2 Neurotic Needs

From her clinical experience, Horney discerned ten particular patterns of neurotic needs. They are based on things that we all need, but they have become distorted in several ways by the difficulties of some people's lives:

Let's take the first need, for affection and approval, as an example. We all need affection, so what makes such a need neurotic? First, the need is unrealistic, unreasonable, and indiscriminate. For example, we all need affection, but we don't expect it from everyone we meet. We don't expect great outpourings of affection from even our close friends and relations. We don't expect our loved ones to show affection at all times, in all circumstances and, we realise that there may be times in our lives where we have to be self-sufficient.

Second, the neurotic's need is much more intense, and he or she will experience great anxiety if the need is not met, or if it even appears that it may not be met in the future. It is this, of course, that leads to the unrealistic nature of the need. Affection, to continue the example, has to be shown clearly at all times, in all circumstances, by all people, or the panic sets in. The neurotic has made the need too central to their existence.

The neurotic needs are as follows:

- 1) *The neurotic need for affection and approval*, the indiscriminate need to please others and be liked by them.
- 2) *The neurotic need for a partner, for someone who will take over one's life*. This includes the idea that love will solve all of one's problems. Again, we all would like a partner to share life with, but the neurotic goes a step or two too far.
- 3) *The neurotic need to restrict one's life to narrow borders*, to be undemanding, satisfied with little, to be inconspicuous. Even this has its normal counterpart. Who hasn't felt the need to simplify life when it gets too stressful, to join a monastic order, disappear into routine, or to return to the womb?
- 4) *The neurotic need for power*, for control over others, for a facade of omnipotence. We all seek strength, but the neurotic may be desperate for it. This is dominance for its own sake, often accompanied by contempt for the weak and a strong belief in one's own rational powers.
- 5) *The neurotic need to exploit others* and get the better of them. In the ordinary person, this might be the need to have an effect, to have impact, to be heard. In the neurotic, it can become manipulation and the belief that people are there to be used. It may also involve a fear of being used, of looking stupid. You may have noticed that the people who love practical jokes more often than not cannot take being the butt of such a joke themselves!
- 6) *The neurotic need for social recognition or prestige*. We are social creatures, and sexual ones, and like to be appreciated. But these people are overwhelmingly concerned with appearances and popularity. They fear being ignored, be thought plain, "uncool," or "out of it."

- 7) *The neurotic need for personal admiration.* We need to be admired for inner qualities as well as outer ones. We need to feel important and valued. But some people are more desperate, and need to remind everyone of their importance — “Nobody recognises genius,” “I’m the real power behind the scenes, you know,” and so on. Their fear is of being thought nobodies, unimportant and meaningless.
- 8) *The neurotic need for personal achievement.* Again, there is nothing intrinsically wrong with achievement — far from it! But some people are obsessed with it. They have to be number one at everything they do. Since this is, of course, quite a difficult task, you will find these people devaluing anything they cannot be number one in! If they are good runners, then the discus and the hammer are “side shows.” If academic abilities are their strength, physical abilities are of no importance, and so on.
- 9) *The neurotic need for self-sufficiency and independence.* We should all cultivate some autonomy, but some people feel that they shouldn’t ever need anybody. They tend to refuse help and are often reluctant to commit to a relationship.
- 10) *The neurotic need for perfection and unassailability.* To become better and better at life and our special interests is hardly neurotic, but some people are driven to be perfect and scared of being flawed. They can’t be caught making a mistake and need to be in control at all times.

As Horney investigated these neurotic needs, she began to recognise that they can be clustered into three broad coping strategies:

The first strategy is compliance, also known as the *moving-toward* strategy or the self-effacing solution. Most children facing parental indifference use this strategy. They often have a fear of helplessness and abandonment, or what Horney referred to as basic anxiety. This strategy includes the first three needs: the need for affection and approval, which is the indiscriminate need to both please others and be liked by them; the neurotic need for a partner, for someone else to take over one’s life, encompassing the idea that love will solve all of one’s problems; and the neurotic need to restrict one’s life into narrow borders, including being undemanding, satisfied with little, inconspicuous.

Horney’s second broad coping strategy is aggression, also called the *moving-against* and the expansive solution. Here, children’s first reaction to parental indifference is anger, or basic hostility. Needs four through eight fall under this category. The fourth need is for power, for control over others, and for a facade of omnipotence. Fifth is the neurotic need to exploit others and to get the better of them. Another need is for social recognition and prestige, with the need for personal admiration falling along the same lines. The eighth neurotic need is for personal achievement.

The final coping strategy is withdrawal, often labeled the *moving-away-from* or resigning solution. When neither aggression nor compliance eliminates the parental indifference, Horney recognised that children attempt to solve the problem by becoming self-sufficient. This includes the neurotic needs for self-sufficiency and independence and those for perfection and unassailability.

While it is human for everyone to have these needs to some extent, the neurotic’s need is much more intense. Horney explained that the person will experience

great anxiety if the need is not met or if it appears that the need will not be met in the future. The neurotic, therefore, makes the need too central to their existence. Horney's ideas of neurotic needs mirrored those of Adler in many ways. Together, Adler and Horney make up an unofficial school of psychiatry and they are often referred to as neo-Freudians or Social Psychologists.

1.4.3 Theory of the Self

Horney also shared Abraham Maslow's view that self-actualisation is something that all people strived for. By "self" she understood the core of one's own being and potential. Horney believed that if we have an accurate conception of our own self, then we are free to realise our potential and achieve what we wish, within reasonable boundaries. Thus, she believed that self-actualisation is the healthy person's aim through life—as opposed to the neurotic's clinging to a set of key needs.

According to Horney we can have two views of our self: the "real self" and the "ideal self". The real self is who and what we actually are. The ideal self is the type of person we feel that we should be. The real self has the potential for growth, happiness, will power, realisation of gifts, etc., but it also has deficiencies. The ideal self is used as a model to assist the real self in developing its potential and achieving self-actualisation.

But it is important to know the differences between our ideal and real self. The neurotic person's self is split between an idealised self and a real self. As a result, neurotic individuals feel that they somehow do not live up to the ideal self. They feel that there is a flaw somewhere in comparison to what they "should" be. The goals set out by the neurotic are not realistic, or indeed possible. The real self then degenerates into a "despised self", and the neurotic person assumes that this is the "true" self. Thus, the neurotic is like a clock's pendulum, oscillating between a fallacious "perfection" and a manifestation of self-hate. Horney referred to this phenomenon as the "tyranny of the should" and the neurotic's hopeless "search for glory".

The compliant person believes "I should be sweet, self-sacrificing, saintly."

The aggressive person says "I should be powerful, recognised, a winner."

The withdrawing person believes "I should be independent, aloof, perfect."

And while vacillating between these two impossible selves, the neurotic is alienated from their true core and prevented from actualising their potentials. She concluded that these ingrained traits of the psyche forever prevent an individual's potential from being actualised unless the cycle of neurosis is somehow broken, through treatment or otherwise.

1.4.4 Evaluation

Horney, together with fellow psychoanalyst Adler formed the Neo Freudian Discipline. While Horney acknowledged and agreed with Freud on many issues, she was also critical of him on several key beliefs. Freud's notion of Oedipal Complex and Penis Envy was subject to criticism by Horney, claiming that the clinging to one parent and jealousy of the other was simply the result of anxiety, caused by a disturbance in the parent-child relationship.

Despite these variances with the prevalent Freudian view, Horney strove to reformulate Freudian thought, presenting a holistic and humanitarian view of the individual psyche which placed much emphasis on cultural and social differences worldwide.

Karen Horney was undoubtedly a great influence to numerous self-psychologists, humanists, cognitive therapists, psychoanalysts, feminists, and existentialists. As a theorist, leader, teacher, and therapist, Horney made numerous contributions that have been highly significant in shaping and advancing psychological thought.

The major negative comment that has been made about Horney's theory is that her theory is limited to the neurotic. Besides leaving out psychotics and other problems, she leaves out the truly healthy person. Nevertheless, since she does put neurosis and health on a single continuum, she does speak to the neurotic in all of us.

Self Assessment Questions

- 1) Discuss the important features of Karen Horney's theory of personality.

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- 2) In the light of Horney's personality theory describe the concept of basic anxiety and what measures are taken to cope with anxiety.

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- 3) "Neurotic needs are irrational solutions to the problem". Discuss it in the light of Horney's personality theory.

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- 4) Evaluate Karen Horney's theory of self.

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1.5 SULLIVAN'S THEORY OF PERSONALITY

Harry Stack Sullivan was born in Norwich, near New York and died in 1949 in Paris. He received his medical degree in 1917 and served with the armed forces in World War I. In 1922 he met William Alanson White, a leader in American Neuropsychiatry. Then he conducted investigations in Schizophrenia that established his reputation as a clinician. Although Sullivan was trained in psychoanalysis in the United States, but soon drifted from the specific psychoanalytic beliefs while retaining much of the core concepts of Freud.

Interestingly, Sullivan placed a lot of focus on both the social aspects of personality and cognitive representations. Sullivan called his approach an interpersonal theory of psychiatry because he believed psychiatry is the study of what goes on between people. This is in contrast to Freud's paradigm that focuses on what goes on inside people. Freud's is a drive model while Sullivan's is an interpersonal model.

For Sullivan, relationships are primary. Personality is a hypothetical entity that cannot be observed or studied apart from interpersonal situations wherein it is made manifest. The only way personality can be known is through the medium of interpersonal interactions. Therefore the unit of study is not the individual person, but the interpersonal situation. Sullivan's theory can be explained under three main headings:

- Dynamics of personality
- Enduring aspect of personality
- Developmental epochs

1.5.1 Dynamics of Personality

Sullivan conceptualised personality as an energy system, with energy existing either as tension (potentiality for action) or as energy transformations (the actions themselves). He further divided tensions into needs and anxiety.

Needs can relate either to the general well-being of a person or to specific zones, such as the mouth or genitals. General needs can be either physiological, such as food or oxygen, or they can be interpersonal, such as tenderness and intimacy.

Unlike needs, which are conjunctive and call for specific actions to reduce them anxiety is disjunctive and calls for no consistent actions for its relief. All infants learn to be anxious through the empathic relationship that they have with their mothering one. Sullivan called anxiety the chief disruptive force in interpersonal relations. A complete absence of anxiety and other tensions is called euphoria.

Sullivan recognised three levels of cognition, or ways of perceiving things

- Prototaxic
- Parataxic and
- Syntactic.

Prototaxic level contains the primitive experience of infants. Experiences that are impossible to put into words or to communicate to others are called prototaxic. Newborn infants experience images mostly on a prototaxic level.

Experiences that are prelogical and nearly impossible to accurately communicate to others are called parataxic. Included in these are erroneous assumptions about cause and effect, which Sullivan termed parataxic distortions.

Experiences that can be accurately communicated to others are called syntactic. Children become capable of syntactic language at about 12 to 18 months of age when words begin to have the same meaning for them that they do for others.

Although all the three types of experiences are found in the whole life span of the individual but in the life of a normal person the syntactic experiences remain dominated.

1.5.2 Enduring Aspects of Personality

Sullivan, in his theory of personality emphasised those aspects of personality which are enduring in nature. Among them, following three are main enduring aspects:

- Dynamism
- Personification
- Self-system

1.5.2.1 Dynamism

In Sullivan's theory dynamism is a term which is considered equivalent to traits. That is, Sullivan used the term dynamism to refer to a typical pattern of behaviour.

Two types of dynamism are distinguished by him

- i) dynamisms related to specific zones of the body and
- ii) dynamism related to tensions.

The first type of dynamism leads to the satisfaction of particular bodily needs like hunger, thirst.

The second type of dynamism is divided in three subtypes

- 1) disjunctive dynamism,
- 2) conjunctive dynamism, and
- 3) isolating dynamism.

The disjunctive dynamism of evil and hatred is called malevolence, defined by Sullivan as a feeling of living among one's enemies. Those children who become malevolent have much difficulty giving and receiving tenderness or being intimate with other people.

The conjunctive dynamism marked by a close personal relationship between two people of equal status is called intimacy. Intimacy facilitates interpersonal development while decreasing both anxiety and loneliness

In contrast to both malevolence and intimacy, lust is an isolating dynamism. That is, lust is a self-centered need that can be satisfied in the absence of an intimate interpersonal relationship. In other words, although intimacy presupposes tenderness or love, lust is based solely on sexual gratification and requires no other person for its satisfaction.

1.5.2.2 Self-System

The most inclusive of all dynamisms is the self-system, or that pattern of behaviours that protects us against anxiety and maintains our interpersonal security. The self system is a conjunctive dynamism, but because its primary job is to protect the self from anxiety, it tends to stifle personality change. Experiences that are inconsistent with our self-system threaten our security and necessitate our use of security operations, which consist of behaviours designed to reduce interpersonal tensions. One such security operation is dissociation, which includes all those experiences that we block from awareness. Another is selective inattention, which involves blocking only certain experiences from awareness.

1.5.2.3 Personifications

Through social interactions and our selective attention or inattention, we develop what Sullivan called *Personifications* of ourselves and others. While defenses can often help reduce anxiety, they can also lead to a misperception of reality.

Sullivan shifts his focus away from Freud and more toward a cognitive approach to understanding personality. These personifications are mental images that allow us to better understand ourselves and the world.

There are three basic ways we see ourselves that Sullivan called

- the *bad-me*,
- the *good-me* and
- the *not-me*.

The bad-me represents those aspects of the self that are considered negative and are therefore hidden from others and possibly even the self. The anxiety that we feel is often a result of recognition of the bad part of ourselves, such as when we recall an embarrassing moment or experience guilt from a past action.

The good me is everything we like about ourselves. It represents the part of us we share with others and that we often choose to focus on because it produces no anxiety.

The not-me, represents all those things that are so anxiety provoking that we can not even consider them a part of us. Doing so would definitely create anxiety which we spend our lives trying to avoid. The not-me is kept out of awareness by pushing it deep into the unconscious.

1.5.2.4 Developmental Epochs

Another similarity between Sullivan's theory and that of Freud's theory is the belief that childhood experiences determine, to a large degree, the adult personality. And, throughout our childhood, mother plays the most significant role. Unlike Freud, however, he also believed that personality can develop in adolescence and even well into adulthood. He called the stages in his developmental theory Epochs.

He believed that we pass through these stages in a particular order but the timing of such is dictated by our social environment. Much of the focus in Sullivan's theory revolved around the conflicts of adolescence. As we can see from the chart below, three stages were devoted to this period of development and much

of the problems of adulthood, according to Sullivan, arise from the turmoil of our adolescence. Sullivan saw interpersonal development as taking place over seven stages, from infancy to mature adulthood. Personality changes are most likely during transitions between stages.

Table : The developmental epochs of Sullivan

Infancy: Birth to 1 year	From birth to about age one, the child begins the process of developing, but Sullivan did not emphasise the younger years to near the importance as Freud
Childhood: 1 year – 5 years	The development of speech and improved communication is key in this stage of development
Juvenile ages: 6-8 years	The main focus as a juvenile is the need for playmates and the beginning of healthy socialisation
Pre adolescence: 9-12 years	During this stage, the child's ability to form a close relationship with a peer is the major focus. This relationship will later assist the child in feeling worthy and likable. Without this ability, forming the intimate relationships in late adolescence and adulthood will be difficult.
Early adolescence: 13-17 years	The onset of puberty changes this need for friendship to a need for sexual expression. Self worth will often become synonymous with sexual attractiveness and acceptance by opposite sex peers
Late adolescence: 18-22/23 years	The need for friendship and need for sexual expression get combined during late adolescence. In this stage a long term relationship becomes the primary focus. Conflicts between parental control and self-expression are commonplace and the overuse of selective inattention in previous stages can result in a skewed perception of the self and the world.
Adulthood : 23 years and above	The struggles of adulthood include financial security, career, and family. With success during previous stages, especially those in the adolescent years, adult relationships and much needed socialisation become more easy to attain. Without a solid background, interpersonal conflicts that result in anxiety become more commonplace.

1.5.2.5 Evaluation

Despite Sullivan's insights into the importance of interpersonal relations, his theory of personality and his approach to psychotherapy have lost popularity in recent years. In summary, his theory rates very low in falsifiability, low in its ability to generate research, and average in its capacity to organise knowledge and to guide action. In addition, it is only average in self-consistency and low in parsimony.

Because Sullivan saw human personality as largely being formed from interpersonal relations, his theory rates very high on social influences and very low on biological ones. In addition, it rates high on unconscious determinants; average on free choice, optimism, and causality; and low on uniqueness.

Self Assessment Questions

- 1) Critically evaluate Sullivan's theory of personality.

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- 2) What are the main enduring aspects of personality proposed by Sullivan? Discuss the concept of personification in detail.

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- 3) What are the main developmental stages in Sullivan's theory? How do they differ from Freud's Stages of Psychosexual development?

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1.6 LET US SUM UP

All the theories in psychology that see human functioning based upon the interaction of drives and forces within the person fall under psychodynamic theory. Freud's psychoanalysis was the original psychodynamic theory. Freud's Psychoanalytic theory is described under the three main headings: structure of

personality, dynamics of personality and development of personality. In order to describe the structure of personality two models have been developed by Freud: topographical model and dynamic or structural model. Freud's topographical model represents his configuration of the mind. Freud conceived human mind in terms of three different levels of consciousness. The current thoughts about which we are aware are in the conscious. Beyond the conscious is the preconscious, which is immediately not accessible but can be accessed. Beyond the preconscious lies the unconscious, of which we are not aware. It contains the repressed desires and impulses. Under the dynamic or structural model Freud maintained that personality consists of three structures, namely, id ego and superego. Id is that part of the personality which deals with the immediate gratification of primitive needs, sexual desires and aggressive impulses. It follows the pleasure principle. Ego develops out of id. It works on reality principle. Superego deals with the ideals. It represents the societal demands and ideals. Under the dynamics of personality Freud maintained that human organism is a complex system in which lies both physiological energy as well as psychic energy. He stated that the instincts are the ultimate cause of all behaviour. Anxiety comes from realistic sources in the external world and conflict within one's own mind. A common conflict is when the id desires something that ego and/or superego do not agree with. An important function of the ego is to operate defense mechanisms. Psychological defenses are the way we deal with anxiety. Denial, repression, regression, reaction formation, projection, rationalisation, intellectualisation, displacement, and displacement are some of the important defence mechanisms. Freud described human development as passing through a series of stages based on the different ways we obtain bodily pleasure at different stages. Freud's Stages of Psychosexual Development are completed in a predetermined sequence and can result in either successful completion of a healthy personality or can result in failure, leading to an unhealthy personality. The stages of psychosexual development are anal stage, oral stage, phallic stage, latency stage, and genital stage.

Horney reformulated Freudian thought and presented a holistic, humanistic perspective that emphasised cultural and social influences, human growth, and the achievement of self-actualisation. Horney's theory can be explained under the following three main headings: basic anxiety, neurotic needs, and measures to cope with anxiety. Basic anxiety is an important theoretical concept in the Horney's theory of personality. When parents' behaviour toward their child indifference, disparaging, an erratic, the child feels insecure – a feeling termed by Horney as basic anxiety. From her clinical experience, Horney discerned ten particular patterns of neurotic needs. They are based on things that we all need, but they have become distorted in several ways by the difficulties of some people's lives. Horney clustered neurotic needs into three broad coping strategies. The first strategy is compliance, also known as the *moving-toward* strategy or the self-effacing solution. The second broad coping strategy is aggression, also called the *moving-against* and the expansive solution. Here, children's first reaction to parental indifference is anger, or basic hostility. The final coping strategy is withdrawal, often labeled *the moving-away-from* or resigning solution. As far as her theory of self is concerned Horney shared Abraham Maslow's view that self-actualisation is something that all people strived for. By "self" she understood the core of one's own being and potential. According to Horney we can have two views of our self: the "real self" and the "ideal self". The neurotic person's self is split between an idealised self and a real self. As a result, neurotic individuals feel that they somehow do not live up to the ideal self.

Sullivan, on the other hand, placed a lot of focus on both the social aspects of personality and cognitive representations. Sullivan called his approach an interpersonal theory of psychiatry. For Sullivan, relationships are primary. Personality is a hypothetical entity that cannot be observed or studied apart from interpersonal situations wherein it is made manifest. The only way personality can be known is through the medium of interpersonal interactions. Therefore the unit of study is not the individual person, but the interpersonal situation. Sullivan's theory can be explained under three main headings: dynamics of personality, enduring aspect of personality, and developmental epochs. Sullivan conceptualised personality as an energy system, with energy existing either as tension (potentiality for action) or as energy transformations (the actions themselves). He further divided tensions into needs and anxiety. Sullivan called anxiety the chief disruptive force in interpersonal relations. Sullivan recognised three levels of cognition, or ways of perceiving things—prototaxic, parataxic and syntactic. Prototaxic level contains the primitive experience of infants. Experiences that are prelogical and nearly impossible to accurately communicate to others are called parataxic. Experiences that can be accurately communicated to others are called syntactic. Sullivan, in his theory of personality, emphasised those aspects of personality which are enduring in nature. These are dynamism, self-system, and personification. In Sullivan's theory dynamism is a term which is considered equivalent to traits. The most inclusive of all dynamisms is the self-system, or that pattern of behaviours that protects us against anxiety and maintains our interpersonal security. Through social interactions and our selective attention or inattention, we develop what Sullivan called *Personifications* of ourselves and others. The personifications are mental images that allow us to better understand ourselves and the world. There are three basic ways we see ourselves that Sullivan called the *bad-me*, the *good-me* and the *not-me*. Like Freud, Sullivan also believed that we pass through several developmental stages in a particular order. He called the stages in his developmental theory Epochs. Seven developmental epochs have been described by Sullivan.

1.7 UNIT END QUESTIONS

- 1) What are the main assumptions of psychodynamic theory of personality? On what account Freud's theory can be termed as the leading psychodynamic theory?
- 2) Discuss the main features of Freud's psychoanalytic theory.
- 3) Explain the structure of personality from psychoanalytic point of view.
- 4) Describe the stages of psychosexual development. What role they play in developing the adult personality?
- 5) What do you mean by defense mechanisms? How they tend to reduce anxiety? Illustrate your answer with suitable examples.
- 6) Explain the main features of Karen Horney's theory of personality.
- 7) On what account does Horney's theory of personality differ from Freud's theory of personality?
- 8) Discuss the importance of neurotic needs in the formulation of Horney's theory of personality.
- 9) Describe the salient features of Sullivan's personality theory.

- 10) Distinguish between Sullivan's Developmental epochs and Freud's stages of psychosexual development.
- 11) What are the main enduring aspects of personality proposed by Sullivan? Discuss the concept of personification in detail.

1.8 GLOSSARY

Psychodynamic	: All the theories of human functioning which are based on the inter play of drives and other forces within the person.
Id	: In psychoanalytic theory, the totally unconscious, primitive region of mind which strives for the immediate personal pleasure and satisfaction.
Ego	: In psychoanalytic theory, the reality oriented region of mind: It involves perception, reasoning, learning, and other activities necessary to interact effectively with the world.
Superego	: In psychoanalytic theory, that region of the mind which includes a view of ideal behaviour (ego-ideal) and a view of right and wrong.
Libido	: In psychoanalytic theory, the energy that underlies all of man's strivings. Usually used to refer to the drive for sexual gratification.
Eros	: In psychoanalytic theory, the drive that comprises the instinct for self-preservation, which is aimed at individual survival; and sexual instinct, aimed at the survival of species.
Thanatos	: Freud's "death instinct"; the destructive, cruel forces within the individual.
Defence Mechanism	: According to Freud, ways in which ego unconsciously tries to cope with unacceptable id impulses, as in repression, projection reaction formation, sublimation, rationalisation.
Oral Stage	: In psychoanalytic theory, the first developmental stage involving the mouth and eating.
Anal stage	: In psychoanalytic theory, the second developmental stage involving learning to control bowel movement.
Phallic stage	: In psychoanalytic theory, the third developmental stage involving sexual urges of male child toward the parent and the resolution resulting Oedipal conflict.
Latency Stage	: In psychoanalytic theory, the period between phallic stage and mature genital stage during which interest in sex is sublimated.

- Genital Stage** : In psychoanalytic theory, the developmental stage in which sexual desire is blended with affection and adult roles are assumed.
- Prototaxic** : In Sullivan's theory experiences that are impossible to put into words or to communicate to others are called prototaxic.
- Parataxic** : In Sullivan's theory experiences that are prelogical and nearly impossible to accurately communicate to others are called parataxic.
- Syntactic** : In Sullivan's theory experiences that can be accurately communicated to others are called syntactic.
- Personifications** : In Sullivan's theory personifications refers to mental images that allow us to better understand ourselves and the world.
- Developmental Epochs** : In Sullivan's theory of personality the seven stages of development are called developmental epochs.

1.9 SUGGESTED READINGS

Hall, C.S., Lindzey, G. and Campbell, J.B. (2004). *Theories of Personality* (Fourth Edition). New York: Wiley

Pervin, L. (1996). *The Science of Personality*. New York: Wiley

UNIT 2 SOCIAL COGNITIVE THEORY OF PERSONALITY (BANDURA)

Structure

- 2.0 Introduction
- 2.1 Objectives
- 2.2 Social Cognitive Theory
 - 2.2.1 Main Tenets of Social Cognitive Theory
- 2.3 Albert Bandura's Social Learning Theory
 - 2.3.1 Reciprocal Determinism
 - 2.3.2 Self-system
 - 2.3.3 Principles of Observational Learning
 - 2.3.4 Vicarious Learning
 - 2.3.5 Evaluation of Bandura's Theory
- 2.4 Let Us Sum Up
- 2.5 Unit End Questions
- 2.6 Glossary
- 2.7 Suggested Readings and References

2.0 INTRODUCTION

A number of theories have been proposed to explain human personality. These theories differ in the conception of human nature they adopt and what they regard to be basic causes and mechanism of human motivation and behaviour. In the present unit we will attempt to understand human personality from social cognitive perspective. First we will briefly discuss the main features of social cognitive theory. After that we will try to explain the social cognitive theory of Bandura in detail. While explaining Bandura's theory emphasis will be placed on his concepts of reciprocal determinism, self system, and process of observational learning.

2.1 OBJECTIVES

After reading this unit, you will be able to:

- Define social cognitive approach to personality;
- Describe the characteristic features of social learning theory of Bandura;
- Explain the concept of reciprocal determinism;
- Analyse the development of self system;
- Explain the principle of observational learning;
- Elucidate the sources of self-efficacy; and
- Describe Bandura's concept of vicarious learning.

2.2 SOCIAL COGNITIVE THEORY

Social cognitive theory is basically a social leaning theory based on the ideas that people learn by watching what others do and that human thought processes

are central to understanding personality. While social cognitive theorists agree that there is a fair amount of influence on development generated by learned behaviour as a result of interaction with the environment in which one grows up, they believe that the individual person (and therefore cognition) is just as important as environment in determining moral development.

Social cognitive theory explains behaviour in terms of a continuous reciprocal interaction between cognitive, behavioural, and environmental determinants. It emphasises that people learn by observing others. People's interaction with the environment, behaviour of others, and one's own cognition etc. act as chief factors in influencing the development of personality of an individual. These three factors are not static or independent; rather, they are all reciprocal. For example, each behaviour witnessed can change a person's way of thinking (cognition). Similarly, the environment in which one is raised may influence later behaviours, just as a father's mindset (also cognition) will determine the environment in which his children are raised.

2.2.1 Main Tenets of Social Cognitive Theory

Expert opinions differ on exactly what separates social cognitive theory from the more general social learning theory. In general, however, the following principles can be used to define social cognitive theory

People learn by observing others, a process known as vicarious learning. Although learning can modify behaviour, people do not always apply what they have learned. Individual's choice is based on perceived or actual consequences of the concerned behaviour.

People are more likely to follow the behaviours modeled by someone with whom they can identify. The more perceived commonalities and/or emotional attachments between the observer and the model, the more likely the observer will learn from the model.

Also, the degree of self-efficacy that a learner possesses directly affects his or her ability to learn. Self-efficacy is a fundamental belief in one's ability to achieve a goal. If a person believes that he or she can learn new behaviours, that would make the person much more successful in doing so.

2.3 ALBERT BANDURA'S SOCIAL LEARNING THEORY

Albert Bandura was born on December 4, 1925, in the small town of Mundare in Northern Alberta, Canada. He received his bachelor's degree in Psychology from the University of British Columbia in 1949. He went on to the University of Iowa, where he received his Ph.D. in 1952. After graduating, he took a postdoctoral position at the Wichita Guidance Center in Wichita, Kansas. In 1953, he started teaching at Stanford University. Bandura was president of the APA in 1973, and received the APA's Award for Distinguished Scientific Contributions in 1980.

Bandura has presented his theory in a series of books. With Richard Walters as junior author, Bandura (1959) wrote *Adolescent Aggression* in which social learning principles were used to describe the personality development. This was followed by another book *Social Learning and Personality Development* (1963)

in which Bandura and Walters presented the social learning principles they had developed.

In 1969 Bandura published *Principles of Behaviour Modification*, in which he explained application of behavioural techniques based on learning principles to the modification of behaviour, and in 1973 he wrote *Aggression: A social Learning Analysis*, in which he attempted to provide a unified theoretical framework for analysing human thought and behaviour.

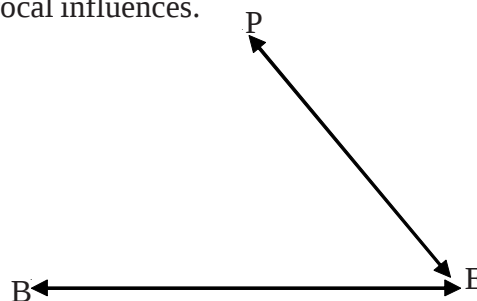
Bandura's Social Learning Theory of Personality is based on the premise that human behaviour is largely acquired and that the principles of learning are sufficient to account for the development and maintenance of behaviour. But the earlier learning theorists were unable to pay sufficient attention about the social context in which behaviour is taking place. Bandura has done a great deal of work on social learning throughout his career and is famous for his "Social Learning Theory" which he has recently renamed, "Social Cognitive Theory". Bandura is seen by many as a cognitive psychologist because of his focus on motivational factors and self-regulatory mechanisms that contribute to a person's behaviour, rather than just environmental factors. This focus on cognition is what differentiates social cognitive theory from Skinner's purely behaviouristic viewpoint.

Bandura theory of social learning can be explained under the following three headings:

- 1) Reciprocal determinism
- 2) Self-system
- 3) Principles of observational learning

2.3.1 Reciprocal Determinism

Human behaviour has often been explained in terms of one-sided determinism. In such modes of unidirectional causation, behaviour is depicted as being shaped and controlled either by environmental influences or by internal dispositions. Social cognitive theory favours a model of causation involving triadic reciprocal determinism. In this model of reciprocal causation, behaviour, cognition and other personal factors, and other environmental influences all operate as interacting determinants that influence each other bidirectionally. Reciprocal causation does not mean that the different sources of influence are of equal strength. Some may be stronger than others. Nor do that the reciprocal influences all occur simultaneously. It takes time for a causal factor to exert its influence and activate reciprocal influences.



Social Cognitive Theory: B represents behaviour, P represents personal factors in the form of cognitive, affective, and biological events, and E represents the external environment.

Source: Bandura (1986)

Let us consider briefly the major interactional links between the different subsystems of influence. The P?B of reciprocal causation reflects the interaction between thought, affect and action. Expectations, beliefs, self-perceptions, goals and intentions give shape and direction to behaviour. What people think, believe, and feel, affects how they behave (Bandura, 1986). The E?P segment of reciprocal causation is concerned with the interactive relation between personal characteristics and environmental influences. Human expectations, beliefs, emotional beliefs and cognitive competencies are developed and modified by social influences. The B?E segment of reciprocal causation in the triadic system represents the two-way influence between behaviour and the environment. In the transactions of everyday life, behaviour alters environmental conditions and is, in turn, altered by the very conditions it creates. Because of the bidirectionality of influence between behaviour and environmental circumstances, people are both products and producers of their environment. They affect the nature of their experienced environment through selection and creation of situations.

Thus a complete analysis of behaviour from reciprocal determinism requires consideration of all three sets of behaviour – cognitive, behavioural, and environmental – influence one another. Bandura discusses the personal determinants of behaviour in terms of the self-system and the individual's self efficacy. Now we turn to consideration of these concepts.

2.3.2 Self-System

It is evident from the reciprocal determinism that all the three segments are mutually interactive. Now the question arises that do they have some starting point? Bandura answered in yes and that point is self system. "In social learning theory, a self-system is not a psychic agent that controls behaviour. Rather it refers to cognitive structures that provide reference mechanisms to set of functions for perception, evaluation and regulation of behaviour". An understanding of self-generated influences subsumed in the self-system is necessary for the explanation and prediction of human behaviour. According to Bandura the three component processes involved in self regulation of behaviour through the activation of self-prescribed contingencies. The three components involved in self-system are self-observation, judgmental processes and self-response.

- 1) *Self-observation*: We look at ourselves, our behaviour, and keep tabs on it.
- 2) *Judgment*: We compare what we see with a standard. For example, we can compare our performance with traditional standards, such as "rules of etiquette." Or we can create arbitrary ones, like "I'll read a book a week." Or we can compete with others, or with ourselves.
- 3) *Self-response*: If you did well in comparison with your standard, you give yourself rewarding self-responses. If you did poorly, you give yourself punishing self-responses. These self-responses can range from the obvious (treating yourself to a sundae or working late) to the more covert (feelings of pride or shame).
- 4) *Self efficacy*: A very important concept in psychology that can be understood well with self-regulation is self-efficacy. If, over the years, you find yourself meeting your standards and life loaded with self-praise and self-reward, you will have a strong sense of self-efficacy. If, on the other hand, you find

yourself forever failing to meet your standards and punishing yourself, you will have a poor sense of self-efficacy. Self-efficacy plays an important role in the Bandura's theory of self-system.

According to Bandura self-efficacy is “the belief in one’s capabilities to organise and execute the courses of action required to manage prospective situations” (1995). In other words, self-efficacy is a person’s belief in his or her ability to succeed in a particular situation. Bandura described these beliefs as determinants of how people think, behave, and feel (1994). Since Bandura published his seminal paper, “*Self-Efficacy: Toward a Unifying Theory of Behavioural Change*,” the subject has become one of the most studied topics in psychology. Why has self-efficacy become such an important topic among psychologists and educators? As Bandura and other researchers have demonstrated, self-efficacy can have an impact on everything from psychological states to behaviour to motivation.

The Role of Self-Efficacy

Virtually all people can identify goals they want to accomplish, things they would like to change, and things they would like to achieve. However, most people also realise that putting these plans into action is not quite so simple. Bandura and others have found that an individual’s self-efficacy plays a major role in how goals, tasks, and challenges are approached.

People with a strong sense of self-efficacy have the following characteristics:

- They view challenging problems as tasks to be mastered.
- They develop deeper interest in the activities in which they participate.
- They form a stronger sense of commitment to their interests and activities.
- They recover quickly from setbacks and disappointments.

On the other hand, people with a weak sense of self-efficacy show the following characteristics:

- They avoid challenging tasks.
- They believe that difficult tasks and situations are beyond their capabilities.
- They focus on personal failings and negative outcomes.
- They quickly lose confidence in personal abilities (Bandura, 1994).

Sources of Self-Efficacy

How does self-efficacy develop? These beliefs begin to form in early childhood as children deal with a wide variety of experiences, tasks, and situations. However, the growth of self-efficacy does not end during youth, but continues to evolve throughout life as people acquire new skills, experiences, and understanding (Bandura, 1992).

According to Bandura, there are four major sources of self-efficacy.

- i) *Mastery Experiences*: The most effective way of developing a strong sense of efficacy is through mastery experiences. (Bandura 1994). Performing a task successfully strengthens our sense of self-efficacy. However, failing to adequately deal with a task or challenge can undermine and weaken self-efficacy.

- ii) *Social Modeling*: Witnessing other people successfully completing a task is another important source of self-efficacy. According to Bandura, when a person sees another person or persons similar to oneself succeeding by one's sustained efforts, makes the person raise the belief that they too possess the capabilities that could help them master comparable activities and succeed.
- iii) *Social Persuasion*: Bandura also asserted that people could be persuaded to believe that they have the skills and capabilities to succeed. Consider a time when someone said something positive and encouraging that helped you achieve a goal. Getting verbal encouragement from others helps people overcome self-doubt and instead focus on giving their best effort to the task at hand.
- iv) *Psychological Responses*: Our own responses and emotional reactions to situations also play an important role in self-efficacy. Moods, emotional states, physical reactions, and stress levels can all impact how a person feels about their personal abilities in a particular situation. A person who becomes extremely nervous before speaking in public may develop a weak sense of self-efficacy in these situations.

2.3.3 Principles of Observational Learning

Bandura's social cognitive theory emphasises the social origins of behaviour in addition to the cognitive thought processes that influence human behaviour and functioning. Bandura's social-cognitive approach represents a break from traditional theories by proposing that cognitive factors are central to human functioning and that learning can occur in the absence of direct reinforcement. That is, learning can occur simply through observation of models and in the absence of reinforcement.

Bandura argued that some of the traditional principles of learning such as the laws of reinforcement and punishment are more relevant to performance than to acquisition. According to Bandura, learning can occur outside the boundaries of pleasure and pain. Thus, people learn a great deal simply by watching or observing others, by reading about what people do, and by making general observations of the world. This learning may or may not be demonstrated in the form of behaviour.

To illustrate that people learn from watching others, Albert Bandura constructed an experiment entitled "*Bobo Doll Behaviour: A Study of Aggression*." In this experiment Bandura exposed a group of children to a video, featuring violent and aggressive actions. For the experiment Bandura made of film of one of his students, a young woman, essentially beating up a bobo doll. Bobo doll is an inflatable, egg-shape balloon creature with a weight in the bottom that makes it bob back up when you knock him down.

The woman punched the clown, shouting "sockeroo!" She kicked it, sat on it, hit with a little hammer, and so on, shouting various aggressive phrases. Bandura showed this film to groups of kindergartners who, as you might predict, liked it a lot. They then were let out to play. In the play room, of course, were several observers with pens and clipboards in hand, a brand new bobo doll, and a few little hammers.

The observers recorded that a lot of little kids beat the daylights out of the bobo doll. They punched it and shouted “sockeroo,” kicked it, sat on it, hit it with the little hammers, and so on. In other words, they imitated the young lady in the film, and quite precisely at that.

This might seem like a real nothing of an experiment at first, but consider: These children changed their behaviour without first being rewarded for approximations to that behaviour! And while that may not seem extraordinary to the average parent, teacher, or casual observer of children, it didn’t fit so well with standard behaviouristic learning theory. Bandura called this phenomenon as observational learning or modeling, and this theory is usually called social learning theory.

Bandura did a large number of variations on the study: The model was rewarded or punished in a variety of ways, the kids were rewarded for their imitations, the model was changed to be less attractive or less prestigious, and so on. Responding to criticism that bobo dolls were supposed to be hit, he even did a film of the young woman beating up a live clown. When the children went into the other room, what should they find there but — the live clown! They proceeded to punch him, kick him, hit him with little hammers, and so on.

All these variations allowed Bandura to establish that there were certain steps involved in the modeling process:

- 1) *Attentional Processes*: In order to learn, you need to be paying attention. Anything that detracts your attention is going to have a negative effect on observational learning. If the model is interesting or there is a novel aspect to the situation, you are far more likely to dedicate your full attention to learning. Thus if you are going to learn anything, you have to be paying attention. Likewise, anything that puts a damper on attention is going to decrease learning, including observational learning. If, for example, you are sleepy, groggy, drugged, sick, nervous, or “hyper,” you will learn less well.

Some of the things that influence attention involve characteristics of the model. If the model is colorful and dramatic, for example, we pay more attention. If the model is attractive, or prestigious, or appears to be particularly competent, we will pay more attention. And if the model seems more like ourselves, we will pay more attention. These kinds of variables directed Bandura towards an examination of television and its effects on kids.

- 2) *Retentional Processes*: The ability to store information is also an important part of the learning process. Retention can be affected by a number of factors, but the ability to pull up information later and act on it is vital to observational learning. Thus you must be able to retain and remember what you have paid attention to. This is where imagery and language come in. We store what we have seen the model doing in the form of mental images or verbal descriptions. When so stored, we can later “bring up” the image or description, so that we can reproduce it with our own behaviour.
- 3) *Reproduction Processes*: Once you have paid attention to the model and retained the information, it is time to actually perform the behaviour you observed. Further practice of the learned behaviour leads to improvement

and skill advancement. Through the reproduction processes you have to translate the images or descriptions into actual behaviour. So you have to have the ability to reproduce the behaviour in the first place. Another important tidbit about reproduction is that our ability to imitate improves with practice at the behaviours involved. And also it has been noted that our abilities improve even when we just imagine ourselves performing! Many athletes, for example, imagine their performance in their mind's eye prior to actually performing.

- 4) *Motivational Processes*: And yet, with all this, you're still not going to do anything unless you are motivated to imitate that is, until you have some reason for doing it. Hence in order for observational learning to occur and be successful, you have to be motivated to imitate the behaviour that has been modeled. Reinforcement and punishment play an important role in motivation. While experiencing these motivators can be highly effective, one can also observe other experiences such as some type of reinforcement or punishment that others are being subjected to. For example, if you see another student rewarded with extra credit for coming to class on time, you might start to show up a few minutes early each day.

In the theory of observational learning Bandura mentions a number of motives, which are:

- a) *past reinforcement*, ala traditional behaviourism.
- b) *promised reinforcements* (incentives) that we can imagine.
- c) *vicarious reinforcement* — seeing and recalling the model being reinforced.

All the above three are, traditionally, considered to be the things that “cause” learning. Bandura states that they do not so much cause learning as they cause us to demonstrate what we have learned. That is, Bandura sees them as motives. Of course, the negative motivations are there as well, giving you reasons not to imitate someone. These are listed below:

- d) *past punishment*.
- e) *promised punishment (threats)*.
- f) *vicarious punishment*.

Like most traditional behaviourists, Bandura says that punishment in whatever form does not work as well as reinforcement and, in fact, has a tendency to “backfire” on us.

2.3.4 Vicarious Learning

Closely related to observational learning is vicarious learning, another distinctive feature of Bandura's social cognitive theory. Vicarious learning, or the process of learning from other people's behaviour, is a central idea of Social Cognitive Theory. This idea asserts that individuals can witness observed behaviours of others and then reproduce the same actions. As a result of this, individuals refrain from making mistakes and can perform behaviours better if they see individuals complete them successfully.

Psychological theories have traditionally emphasised learning through the effects of one's actions. If knowledge and skills could be acquired only by direct experience, the process of cognitive and social development would be greatly retarded. The abbreviation of the acquisition process is vital for survival as well as for human development because natural endowment provides few inborn skills. Humans have evolved an advanced capacity for observational learning that enables them to expand their knowledge and skills on the basis of information conveyed by modeling influences. Indeed, virtually all learning phenomena resulting from direct experience can occur vicariously by observing people's behaviour and its consequences for them (Bandura, 1986; Rosenthal & Zimmerman, 1978).

Much of social learning occurs either deliberately or inadvertently by observing the actual behaviour of others and the consequences for them. However, a great deal of information about behaviour patterns and the effects they have on the environment is gained from models portrayed symbolically through verbal or pictorial means.

A major significance of symbolic modeling lies in its tremendous multiplicative power. Unlike learning by doing, which requires altering the actions of each individual through repeated trial-and-error experiences, in observational learning a single model can transmit new ways of thinking and behaving simultaneously to many people in widely dispersed locales.

There is another aspect of symbolic modeling that magnifies its psychological and social effects. During the course of their daily lives, people have direct contact with only a small sector of the environment. Consequently, their conceptions of social reality are greatly influenced by vicarious experiences—by what they see and hear—without direct experiential correctives.

2.3.5 Evaluation of Bandura's Theory

The theory of Bandura has been demonstrated to make powerful predictions and has generated useful applications in a large number of areas of human behaviour.

Bandura's theory is well grounded in research. Its terms are very tightly and clearly defined and so they lend themselves well to empirical research.

Probably the most significant contribution of social cognitive theory is its applied value.

However in spite of the above merits Bandura's theory has some limitations. These limitations are given below:

Behaviour has been found to be more consistent than is argued by Bandura's theory which focuses a great deal on the situation. Some researchers have argued that the theory lacks attention to biological or hormonal processes.

Probably of most significance is the criticism that the theory is not unified. Concepts and processes such as observational learning and self-efficacy have been highly researched but there has been little explanation about the relationship among the concepts.

2.4 LET US SUM UP

Social cognitive theory of Bandura is based on the idea that people learn by watching what others do and that human thought processes are central to understanding personality. Social cognitive theory approaches the explanation of behaviour in terms of a continuous reciprocal interaction between cognitive, behavioural, and environmental determinants. It identifies human behaviour as an interaction of personal factors, behaviour, and the environment. These three segments are mutually interactive. Now the question arises that do they have some starting point? Bandura answered in yes and that point is self-system. "In social learning theory, a self-system is not a psychic agent that controls behaviour. Rather it refers to cognitive structures that provide reference mechanisms to set of functions for perception, evaluation and regulation of behaviour". The three components involved in self-system are self-observation, judgment and self-response. Self-efficacy is another important concept in Bandura's theory. Self-efficacy is "the belief in one's capabilities to organise and execute the courses of action required to manage prospective situations". There are four major sources of self-efficacy. These sources are mastery experiences, social modeling, social persuasion, and psychological responses.

Bandura's social-cognitive approach represents a break from traditional theories by proposing that cognitive factors are central to human functioning and that learning can occur in the absence of direct reinforcement. That is, learning can occur simply through observation of models and in the absence of reinforcement. Through a series of investigations, Bandura and Walters demonstrated that modeling is not merely a process of behavioural mimicry. Rather, through modeling people learn the value of particular behaviour with regard to goal achievement or outcomes.

Bandura proposed a four step conceptual scheme of the process involved in observational learning: The first step incorporates the attentional processes that are involved including certain model characteristics which may increase the likelihood of the behaviour being attended to. It also includes observer characteristics such as; sensory capacities, motivation and arousal levels, perceptual set and past reinforcement.

The second step refers to retention processes including the observer's ability to encode, to remember and to make sense of what has been observed.

The third step refers to motor reproduction processes including the capabilities that the observer has to perform the behaviour being observed. Specific factors include; physical capabilities, and availability of responses.

The final step refers to motivational processes including external reinforcement, vicarious reinforcement, and self-reinforcement. If the behaviour is to be imitated, an observer must be motivated to perform that behaviour. Vicarious learning, or the process of learning from other people's behaviour, is a central idea of social cognitive theory. This idea asserts that individuals can witness observed behaviours of others and then reproduce the same actions. As a result of this, individuals refrain from making mistakes and can perform behaviours better if they see individuals complete them successfully. Vicarious learning is a part of social modeling which is one of the four means to increase self-efficacy. Social

modeling refers not just observing behaviour but also receiving instruction and guidance of how to complete a behaviour

2.5 UNIT END QUESTIONS

- 1) Discuss main features of social cognitive theory of personality.
- 2) What do understand by reciprocal determinism? Discuss its importance in the light of Bandura's theory.
- 3) Critically evaluate the development of self-system as proposed by Bandura.
- 4) Write an essay on self-efficacy (500 words).
- 5) What is observational learning? Discuss the main processes involved in observational learning.
- 6) What do you mean by vicarious learning. What role does it play in Bandura's social learning?

2.6 GLOSSARY

Reciprocal determinism	: In social learning theory reciprocal determinism is used to indicate that personal influences, environmental forces, and behaviour function as interdependent rather than autonomous determinants.
Self-efficacy	: The person's confidence in performing a particular behaviour; Approach behavioural change in small steps to ensure success.
Observational learning	: Behavioural acquisition that occurs by watching the actions and outcomes of others' behaviour; Include credible role models of the targeted behaviour.
Reinforcements	: Responses to a person's behaviour that increase or decrease the likelihood of reoccurrence; Promote self-initiated rewards and incentives
Self-efficacy	: The person's confidence in performing a particular behaviour; Approach behavioural change in small steps to ensure success.
Vicarious leaning	: Vicarious learning is the process of learning from observing other people's behaviour

2.7 SUGGESTED READINGS AND REFERENCES

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UNIT 3 LEARNING THEORY OF PERSONALITY (PAVLOV AND SKINNER)

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3.0 INTRODUCTION

Learning theory of personality presents a model of personality that emphasises observable behaviour, the relationship between stimuli and responses, and the impact of learning. The behaviourist position is that personality is no more (or less) than a collection of learned behaviour patterns. They do not give importance to the internal causes of behaviour. Personality, like other learned behaviour, is acquired through classical and operant conditioning, observational learning, reinforcement, extinction, generalisation, and discrimination. Children can learn things like kindness, hostility, generosity, or destructiveness. In the present unit we will discuss two important learning theories of personality. First, we will focus our attention to Pavlov's theory of learning and then we will turn to explain the important features of Skinner theory of personality.

3.1 OBJECTIVES

After reading this unit, you will be able to:

- Define learning concepts underlying learning theories of personality;
- Explain the learning theories of personality;
- Deliberate the process of classical conditioning;
- Describe principles of classical conditioning;
- Explain how classical conditioning develops and maintains behaviours; and
- Explain the applications of classical conditioning in the modification of behaviour.

3.2 PAVLOV: LEARNING THEORY OF PERSONALITY

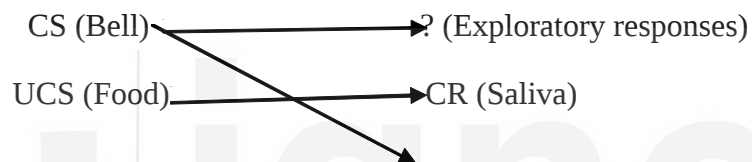
Ivan Petrovich Pavlov (1849-1936) was born in Ryazan, Russia, and attended the religious school and seminary there, where he studied natural science. He did not complete his studies, but entered St Petersburg University in 1870, where he continued to study natural science, and decided to make his career as a physiologist. After graduation in 1875, he went to the Military Medical Academy to pursue his research. He completed his doctorate there in 1883, and then went to Germany (1884–6), where he studied in Leipzig with Carl Ludwig, and in Breslau. In 1890 he was appointed professor in the department of pharmacology in the Military Medical Academy. In 1904 he received the Nobel Prize for his work on the physiology of digestion. From 1925 to 1936 he worked mainly in three laboratories: the Institute of Physiology of the Soviet Academy of Sciences (which is now named after him), the Institute of Experimental Medicine, and the biological laboratory at Koltushy (now Pavlov), near St Petersburg. Pavlov was a skillful ambidextrous surgeon; using dogs as experimental animals, he established fistulas from various parts of the digestive tract by which he obtained secretions of the salivary glands, pancreas, and liver without disturbing the nerve and blood supply.

Pavlov was a behaviourist. This means that his theories focused on observable behaviour, because behaviour can be measured and thought can not. Pavlov viewed individual differences in personality as the result of learning and different environmental experiences. Scientific evidence is the keyword in his theory. Pavlov studied reflexes, that is the automatic behaviours that are caused by a stimulus from the environment. Some reflexes, such as blinking our eyes when a puff of air comes in it, or the sucking of a baby when something is put in his/her mouth. This automatic behaviour can be manipulated. This is called conditioning.

Conditioning has been defined as a form of learning in which capacity of eliciting a response is transferred from one stimulus to another. In the conditioning process, an unconditioned stimulus is given to a person. This stimulus causes a reflex on its own. In order to explain Pavlov's learning theory of personality, first we will focus our attention on the process and principles of classical conditioning, and see how these processes and principles are found to be helpful in the development and change of personality.

3.2.1 Process of Classical Conditioning

In order to examine the process of classical conditioning in a systematic manner, Pavlov first performed a simple operation on his dog, in which a rubber tube was inserted into salivary gland so that the precise amount of saliva secreted during the experiment could be measured. After making these initial preparations a neutral stimulus (e.g., a bell) was presented for a brief period of time, followed quickly by a second stimulus known to elicit salivation response and called unconditioned stimulus (e.g., Meat Powder). Each pairing of conditioned stimulus (CS) and unconditioned stimulus (UCS) served as conditioning trials, and a number of such pairings were conducted in rapid succession. As a result of repeated pairing the CS (bell) acquired the ability to evoke the salivation. Because the salivation to the bell (CR) began to occur only after the conditioning, it was termed conditioned response (CR). On the other hand the salivation response to the meat powder which seems to occur automatically was termed unconditioned response (UCR).



Pavlov further stated that a conditioned stimulus can serve as the basis for further conditioning, which is demonstrated by Pavlov. In the experiment of *first-order conditioning*, food was removed from the situation, and a new stimulus (e.g., light) was paired with bell. This new stimulus (light) also acquired the property of eliciting the response. Rescorla (1973) suggested that under appropriate circumstances even *third order conditioning* can be established.

3.2.2 Principles of Classical Conditioning

Now we will focus on some of the important principles of classical conditioning which governs:

- i) Acquisition
- ii) Generalisation and Discrimination
- iii) Extinction and Spontaneous recovery

3.2.2.1 Acquisition

There are two important factors which exert strong influence upon the ability of a conditioned stimulus to elicit a response.

- 1) First is the number of pairings between this stimulus and the unconditioned stimulus. As the number of pairings increases, the conditioned stimulus comes to evoke a conditioned response with increasing strength. The strength of the response is measured in terms of magnitude, latency and probability of occurrence of the conditioned response.
- 2) The second factor which exerts an important effect upon the process of classical conditioning is the interval, which elapses between the presentation of conditioned stimulus and unconditioned stimulus. For many different responses, conditioning appears to be maximal when this interval is 0.50 seconds. However, further researches suggest that in some cases, it can be much longer and still produce conditioning.

For example in an experiment of Garcia, McGowan, and Green, (1972), rats were given a sweet tasting liquid to drink, and were then injected with a drug which makes them sick in stomach. The rats were found to acquire an aversion to the taste even when the interval between drinking and nausea was more than an hour.

Martin Seligman (1972) noted that humans, too, learn strong aversion to the tastes of foods which makes them sick many hours after they have eaten. The acquisition of irrational fears or phobias, sexual hang-up (fetish), prejudice and hostile feelings has successfully been explained through the process of classical conditioning. In both cases, stimuli initially incapable of eliciting strong reaction acquire this ability through repeated pairing with the unconditional stimuli.

For example a child while playing a new pet suddenly hears the loud sound of a backfiring truck. In all probability the noise (which may be viewed as an unconditional stimulus) will frighten the child greatly (an unconditioned emotional response), so that the child burst into tears. If the child happens to live near a busy road and often plays with the pet, this situation may be repeated – quite by accident – on several other occasions. The child now no longer will play with the pet; instead he may recoil in terror and seek to escape from its presence.

Similarly sexual hang-up can also be explained through the process of classical conditioning. Assume that a person for whom an article of clothing (CS) is initially nothing to do with sexual arousal. Now imagine that the man sees the nude body of his lover (UCS) along with that clothing article, and it happens to take place repeatedly. Now what will happen? The sexual arousal which is a natural response to the nude body of the lover will be associated with that article of cloth. In the same way development of prejudice and hostility can also be accounted by the process of classical conditioning.

3.2.2.2 Generalisation and Discrimination

Once the organism is conditioned to one stimulus, it is often found that it will respond to other stimuli, similar in some dimensions to it. This phenomenon is known as stimulus generalisation. Stimulus generalisation plays a very important adaptive role. For example, the sounds made by angry bees, wasps, and hornets are highly similar, but certainly not identical. Because of stimulus generalisation, however an individual who has learned through painful experience to react with the fear and caution to one of the sound may also respond in a similar manner to others as well.

Opposite to this phenomenon is stimulus discrimination. Within the framework of classical conditioning, the ability to discriminate between two stimuli is developed when one of the two similar stimuli is consistently followed by an unconditioned stimulus while the other is not. Under such conditions, tendencies to respond to the first are strengthened, while the tendencies to respond to the second are weakened. Although the ability of human beings and other organisms to discriminate between various objects is quite impressive, but it has some limits. The disconcerting effects may result when these limits are exceeded is suggested by experiments dealing with the phenomenon of experimental neurosis. Let us what this experimental neurosis is.

In a famous experiment by Shenger-Krestovnika (1921) a circle was used as a conditional stimulus before feeding, and the dog was also trained to associate an ellipse with not being fed. By small steps the ellipse was then made more and more like a circle. When the ellipse was almost round, initially the dog could usually distinguish it from a circle. But after a few weeks the dog became neurotic: it ceased to be able to recognise obvious ellipses and a circle, became very excited, and was no longer calm during experiments. Pavlov termed the animal's abnormal condition as experimental neurosis and he attributed it to a disturbance of the balance between excitatory and inhibitory processes in the nervous system.

This explanation of experimental neurosis is grounded in Pavlov's theory of personality. He explained personality by variation in the excitation of the nervous system. He did not, however, attribute neurosis solely to external factors, such as contradictory stimuli. His experiments on experimental neuroses showed that dogs with different 'personalities' were differentially susceptible to the treatment: the same treatment on different dogs could produce quite different neuroses. Although the experiment was conducted on an animal, the results of such experiments however, suggest that while the ability of human beings to discriminate between stimuli is impressive, their ability to discriminate between highly similar stimuli has definite limits. When the environmental conditions require that these limits be exceeded, extreme stress may be induced.

3.2.2.3 Extinction and Spontaneous Recovery

When a conditioned stimulus is repeatedly presented but is never followed by the unconditioned stimulus with which it was formerly associated, its ability to elicit conditioned response gradually decreases, and may fade completely. This phenomenon is known as extinction. But if the same extinguished stimulus is then presented again at a later time, its capacity to evoke the response is found to reappear. This phenomenon is termed spontaneous recovery.

Extinction of conditioned response is also very important for the development of normal personality. If we lack some mechanism for getting rid of useless reactions to stimuli which no longer serve as reliable cues for the occurrence of such events, we would become a walking bundle of useless conditioned responses.

3.2.3 Principles of Behaviour Modification

The principles of classical conditioning are found to be very useful for the modification of behaviour. The principles of classical conditioning have also been applied in the treatment of neurosis and phobias. Rather than focusing on the root of the problem like a traditional psychopathologist, a behaviourist could focus on eliminating the symptom by bringing classical conditioning into play. By reinforcing the extinction of the symptom, the psychopathological illness of the patient could be eliminated (Schwartz & Lacy, 1982). For example, the therapeutic technique, known as flooding which is used to treat phobias relies on the principles of extinction. Systematic desensitisation is still another important technique successfully in dealing with a wide range of mal-adaptive behaviours, including examination anxiety, phobias, nightmares, stuttering, depression, obsession, impotence, and anorexia nervosa, based on the principles of extinction.

3.2.4 Process of Behaviour Modification

The process of classical conditioning was also found useful for treating alcoholism and nicotine addiction. According to Pavlovian principles, addiction occurs

because of both the pleasurable physiological effects of nicotine and alcohol, unconditioned stimuli, and the taste of nicotine and alcohol, conditioned stimuli. When one stops ingesting the substance, as in traditional treatment procedures, it is extremely easy to become addicted again. After all, “simply not presenting a conditioned stimulus does not eliminate the relation between it and the unconditioned stimuli” (Schwartz & Lacy, 1982).

With just one use, the taste and unconditioned pleasurable effects become associated with each other again. However, if the taste of nicotine or alcohol, the conditioned response, is paired with a new unpleasant effect such as nausea and vomiting, the result will be a negative aversion to the substances in question. Such was the case when both an old alcoholic man and a young chain smoking adolescent were given apomorphine paired with alcohol and nicotine, respectively. The drug apomorphine induced severe feelings of nausea and vomiting which caused both of them to give up these addictive substances for life. This process is called counter-conditioning and has had remarkable success in curing addictions (Schwartz & Lacy, 1982), and the therapy based on the principles of counter-conditioning is termed as Aversion Therapy.

3.2.5 Evaluation

Pavlov started his career as a physiologist. He was interested in studying the process of digestion and at the time of studying the digestive system he discovered what has later been termed as classical conditioning. So, originally his theory was aimed to explain the leaning process. The principles of classical conditioning were found to be applicable for explaining the development of many psychopathologies. Although Pavlov’s theory is able to explain the development and change of a number of aspects of personality, but it is unable to explain the total personality of human beings. Moreover, since many of his principles are drawn from the experiments conducted on animals, it is also doubtful if these principles can also be applied to human beings.

Self Assessment Questions

- 1) Explain the important features of Pavlov’s theory.

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- 2) Discuss the process of classical conditioning.

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- 3) Describe the main principles of classical conditioning, and discuss their roles in the development of personality.

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- 4) The principles of classical conditioning have extensively been used in behaviour modification. Explain it.

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3.3 B. F. SKINNER: LEARNING THEORY OF PERSONALITY

Burrhus Frederic Skinner was born on March 20, 1904, in a small Pennsylvania town of Susquehanna. His father was a lawyer, and his mother a strong and intelligent housewife. His upbringing was old-fashioned and hard-working. He received his BA in English from Hamilton College in upstate New York. He didn't fit in very well, not enjoying the fraternity parties or the football games. He wrote for school paper, including articles critical of the school and the faculty.

To top it off, he was an atheist — in a school that required daily chapel attendance. He wanted to be a writer and did try, sending off poetry and short stories. When he graduated, he built a study in his parents' attic to concentrate, but it just wasn't working for him. Ultimately, he resigned himself to writing newspaper articles on labour problems, and lived for a while in Greenwich Village in New York City as a "bohemian." After some traveling, he decided to go back to school, this time at Harvard. He got his masters in psychology in 1930 and his doctorate in 1931, and stayed there to do research until 1936. Also in that year, he moved to Minneapolis to teach at the University of Minnesota. There he met and soon married Yvonne Blue. They had two daughters, the second of which became famous as the first infant to be raised in one of Skinner's inventions, the air crib. In 1945, he became the chairman of the psychology department at Indiana University. On August 18, 1990, B. F. Skinner died of leukemia after becoming perhaps the most celebrated psychologist since Sigmund Freud.

Skinner's theory of personality, like other learning theories of personality did not grow out of the therapeutic situations, rather it emerged from the works carried out in laboratory settings. Skinner derived his principles of learning from the study of individual subjects in precisely controlled condition. He focused on the study of individual subjects instead of generalised group which reflected his belief that lawful control can be seen in individual behaviour.

While other personality theorists attempted to understand personality by studying groups, Skinner attempted to develop general laws by studying individual. Skinner, in his theory of personality, emphasised some particular aspects of human nature like determinism, elementalism, changeability, objectivity, reactivity and knowability, while rejected the other aspects like rationality-irrationality and homeostasis-hetrostasis completely because he did not consider the internal sources of human behaviour important for explaining behaviour.

According to Skinner study of personality can be done on the basis of systematic and precise evaluation of individual's genetic and idiosyncratic learning history. It means that for studying the personality one has to study and discover the relationship between the behaviour of the organism and its reinforcing consequences. Skinner's theory is based on the assumptions that behaviour is lawful, it can be predicted, and it can be controlled. Skinner's theory can be explained in the following headings:

- Operant behaviour
- Schedule of reinforcement
- Aversive Stimuli
- Secondary Reinforcement
- Successive approximation or Shaping
- Superstitious behaviour
- Abnormal Behaviour

Now let us discuss these aspects of Skinner's theory in some detail.

3.3.1 Operant Behaviour

According to skinner personality of an individual can be understand through the study of his behaviour. He further stated that behaviour can be distinguished in two types, viz., (i) respondent and (ii) operant. Respondent behaviours are those which are elicited by the stimuli of the environment that are well-known and can be identified easily. These behaviours are involuntary and automatic in the sense that if the stimuli is presented before the organism, the behaviour related to that stimuli will occur automatically. The organism has no control over it. Constrictions of pupil, salivation, sweating etc. are examples of such behaviours. These behaviours are usually not learned by the organism at simple level, but at complex level.

Operant behaviours, on the other hand, are those behaviours which are not caused by any specific stimuli of the environment. The stimuli of the operant behaviour are difficult to identify. These behaviours are performed by the individual voluntarily. Skinner was of the opinion that behaviours of human beings are predominantly operant in nature.

Operant behaviours or responses can be tied to a readily identifiable stimulus. These responses seem to be spontaneous and voluntary. Another property of this kind of behaviour is that its frequency of occurrence is changed according to the event that follows. More specifically, the strength of these responses increases when the response occurs and is followed by reinforcement.

The peculiarity of this class of response gives rise to Skinner's use of the term "operant". An operant is a response that operates in the environment and changes

it. The changes in the environment affect the subsequent occurrence of the response. In operant conditioning, therefore, the reinforcer is not associated with an eliciting stimulus. Instead it is associated with the response.

Skinner prepared a special cage (called “Skinner box”) that has a bar or lever on one wall that, when pressed, causes a little mechanism to release a food pellet into the cage. The rat is bouncing around the cage, doing whatever it is rats do, when he accidentally presses the lever. So in operant conditioning it is essential that the reinforcer be presented after the occurrence of the response. A reinforcer is defined as anything that strengthens a tendency to behave in a particular way (food satisfies hunger so you eat; money reinforces the likelihood that you will keep working; a child will behave well overtime because mum and dad approve him).

In other words a reinforcer is a stimulus event which if it occurs in the proper temporal relation with a response, tends to maintain or to increase the strength of a response. Reinforcer may either be positive or negative. The likelihood of the behaviour will be increased by the positive reinforcement (adding something pleasant) and also by the negative reinforcement (turning off/removing something unpleasant).

Skinner’s entire system is based on operant conditioning. Skinner’s process of operant conditioning is given below: A rat is moving around the cage doing what a rat does normally. Accidentally it presses the lever and a food pellet falls into the cage. The operant (pressing the lever) is the behaviour just prior to the reinforcer, which is the food pellet, of course. In no time at all, the rat is furiously peddling away at the lever, hoarding his pile of pellets in the corner of the cage. The behaviour followed by a reinforcing stimulus results in an increased probability of that behaviour occurring in the future. What if you do not give the rat any more pellets? Apparently, after a few futile attempts, he stops his lever-pressing behaviour. This is called *extinction* of the operant behaviour. A behaviour no longer followed by the reinforcing stimulus results in a decreased probability of that behaviour occurring in the future.

Now, if you were to turn the pellet machine back on, so that pressing the lever again provides the rat with pellets, the behaviour of lever-pressing will return right back into existence, much more quickly than it took for the rat to learn the behaviour the first time. This is called *spontaneous recovery*. This is because the return of the reinforcer takes place in the context of a reinforcement history that goes all the way back to the very first time the rat was reinforced for pressing on the lever.

3.3.2 Schedules of Reinforcement

Skinner decided to reduce the number of reinforcements he gave his rats for whatever behaviour he was trying to condition, and observed that the rats kept up their operant behaviours, and at a stable rate, no less. This is how Skinner discovered schedules of reinforcement. Following schedules of reinforcement were applied by Skinner:

- 1) **Continuous reinforcement:** In continuous reinforcement schedule, every time that the rat does the behaviour (such as pushing the lever), it gets the food.

- 2) **Intermittent Reinforcement Schedule:** In intermittent reinforcement schedule the rat does not get the reinforcement every time he presses the lever. It is further divided into two types: (a) The fixed ratio (b) The fixed interval
- a) The *fixed ratio schedule* was the first one Skinner discovered: If the rat presses the lever three times, say, he gets reinforcement. Or five times. Or twenty times. Or “x” times. There is a fixed ratio between behaviours and reinforcers.
 - b) The *fixed interval schedule* uses a timing device of some sort. If the rat presses the lever at least once during a particular stretch of time (say 20 seconds), then he gets reinforcement. If he fails to do so, he does not get it. Even if he presses the bar a hundred times during that 20 seconds, he still only gets one reinforcement. One strange thing that happens is that the rats tend to “pace” themselves: They slow down the rate of their behaviour right after the reinforcer, and speed up when the time for it gets close.

Skinner also looked at *variable ratios and variable schedules*.

Variable ratio means you change the “x” each time — first it takes 3 presses to get the food, then 10, then 1, then 7 and so on. Variable interval means you keep changing the time period — first 20 seconds, then 5, then 35, then 10 and so on.

With the variable interval schedule, they no longer “pace” themselves, because they can no longer establish a “rhythm” between behaviour and reward. Most importantly, these schedules are very resistant to extinction.

3.3.3 Aversive Stimuli

An aversive stimulus is the opposite of a reinforcing stimulus, something we might find unpleasant or painful. A behaviour followed by an aversive stimulus results in a decreased probability of the behaviour occurring in the future. This both defines an aversive stimulus and describes the form of conditioning known as punishment. If you shock a rat for making a response, the rat will stop to make that response. If you spank the baby for throwing his toys he will throw his toys less and less (maybe). On the other hand, if you remove an already active aversive stimulus after a rat or baby performs a certain behaviour, you are doing negative reinforcement. If you turn off the electricity when the rat stands on his hind legs, he will do a lot more standing.

Skinner (contrary to some stereotypes that have arisen about behaviourists) does not “approve” of the use of aversive stimuli. It is not because of ethics, but because they do not work well. That’s because whatever was reinforcing the bad behaviours has not been removed, as it would have been in the case of extinction. This hidden reinforcer has just been “covered up” with a conflicting aversive stimulus. All baby needs to do is wait till you are out of the room, or find a way to blame it on its brother, or in some way escape the consequences, and thus the baby is back to its old ways. In fact, because the baby now only gets to enjoy its reinforcer occasionally, the baby has gone into a variable schedule of reinforcement, and it will be even more resistant to extinction than ever.

3.3.4 Secondary Reinforcement

A neutral stimulus presented at the time of delivering the response also tends to acquire the reinforcing ability. For example in the Skinner box at the time of delivering reinforcement a sound of click is also produced repeatedly each time. It was found that this click of sound itself acquires the reinforcing characteristics being associated with the original reinforcer. The sound of click is now called secondary reinforcer.

Skinner believed that the conditioned or secondary reinforcers are of great importance in controlling human behaviour. It is obvious that our every action is not maintained by the presentation of unconditioned or primary reinforcers such as food, water, and sex. It is possible to reason that much of our behaviours relies on secondary reinforcement. The most common example of secondary reinforcer is money. It has no intrinsic value of its own, but being paired with a number of different unconditioned primary reinforcers, it has itself acquired the reinforcing quality. The notion of secondary reinforcement is important in Skinner's theory of personality, and he used it effectively to account for the maintenance of many responses that takes place as part of our social behaviour.

3.3.5 Successive Approximation or Shaping

A question Skinner had to deal with was how we get to more complex sorts of behaviours. He responded with the idea of *shaping*, or "the method of successive approximations." Basically, it involves first reinforcing a behaviour only vaguely similar to the one desired. Once that is established, you look out for variations that comes a little closer to what you want, and so on, until you have the organism performing a behaviour that would never show up in ordinary life. Skinner and his students have been quite successful in teaching animals to do some quite extraordinary things.

3.3.6 Superstitious Behaviour

The type of conditioning, in which there is no causal relationship between the response and the reinforcer, is referred by Skinner as superstitious conditioning. When the reinforcement happens to occur purely due to chance factor at the time the individual made a particular response, the individual started to believe that the particular response made by him was the cause for getting the reinforcement, while there was no functional or causal relationship between the response he made and the reinforcement he got.

According to Skinner many of our superstitious beliefs are the result of this conditioning. The members of the primitive tribe, for example, may practice rain making by the performance of some ritualised dance. On some occasions rain does happen to follow the performance. Thus the rain-making dance is reinforced and tends to be repeated. The tribal people believe that a causal relationship exists between the dance and the rain. Similarly, take another example of a cat crossing your way: a superstition commonly found in Indian society. Suppose you were going for some important work, say, for example, to appear in your annual examination. When you were on the way, a cat happens to cross the way. If you could not do well in the examination due to one or other reasons, you started to attribute your failure to the cat crossing your way. While in reality there was no functional relationship between the cat crossing your way and the performance in the examination.

3.3.7 Abnormal Behaviour

The constructs like repressed wishes, an identity crisis, conflicts between ego and superego, etc. did not appeal to Skinner for explanation of the abnormal behaviours. He advocated that the framework on which his theory is based is sufficient to understand and explain the abnormal behaviour. Abnormal behaviour is assumed to be the same in its principles of development as normal behaviour.

In putting forward a programme for the treatment of abnormal behaviour, Skinner repeatedly asserted that the goal is simply to replace abnormal behaviour with normal behaviour. The undesirable behaviour can be modified by the manipulation of the environment in a manner determined by the techniques of operant and respondent conditioning.

Through these techniques, we can extinguish an undesirable behaviour (by removing the reinforcer) and replace it with a desirable behaviour by reinforcement. It has been used on all sorts of psychological problems such as addictions, neuroses, shyness, autism, even schizophrenia. It has been observed that this technique works particularly well with children.

The other technique used for behaviour modification is *token economy*. This technique is used primarily in institutions such as psychiatric hospitals, juvenile halls, and prisons. Certain rules are made explicit in the institution, and behaving appropriately is rewarded with tokens, including poker chips, tickets, funny money, recorded notes, etc. The tokens can be traded in for desirable things such as candy, cigarettes, games, movies, time out of the institution, etc.

3.3.8 Evaluation

Skinner's theory of personality' like other theories of personality, also has certain strengths and also some weaknesses. Some of the strengths of the Skinner's learning perspectives on personality are as follows:

Skinner based his theory upon impressive experimental evidence. It is supported by a number of scientific and testable constructs supported by research findings.

Skinner, in his theory personality, places great emphasis on the importance of the environment to explain the situational variations in behaviour

The theory has useful therapeutic applications. Psychotherapists have used the principles of operant conditioning for treating a variety of behaviour problems successfully.

However, in spite of the above merits Skinner's theory has also been criticized on the following grounds:

Skinner's theory tends to explain specific behaviour and behaviour changes but not a comprehensive theory of personality. The word personality itself seems missing from the theory.

The role of biological factors has been ignored. Skinner overlooked the individual differences present from birth.

In-depth case studies are lacking, partly because comprehensive personality assessment tests have not been developed from the learning perspective.

Skinner's theory tends to explain specific behaviour and behaviour changes but not a comprehensive theory of personality. The word personality itself seems missing from the theory.

The role of biological factors has been ignored. Skinner overlooked the individual differences present from birth.

Skinner's theory is unable to cover the whole story of personality. For example language is certainly acquired to some degree via learning processes: i.e. operant conditioning, reinforcement and shaping all play a part. However, according to Noam Chomsky (1959) these concepts do not explain fully how a child learns to speak. How for example do children come up with sentences they have never heard before? Why the incredible similarity in language development across cultures?

Boulding (1984) questions Skinner's application of principles of animal behaviour to the much more complex human behaviour. In using animals as substitutes for humans in the exploration of human behaviour, Skinner is making the big assumption that general laws relating to the behaviour of animals can be applied to describe the complex relations in the human world.

If this assumption proves false, then the entire foundation upon which Skinner's theory rests will come crashing down. More experiments with human participants must be done to prove the validity of this.

Self Assessment Questions

1) What are the main characteristics of learning theory of personality?

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2) Discuss the salient features of Skinner's theory of personality.

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3) Explain the procedures of operant conditioning.

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4) What do you mean by 'operant behaviour'?

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5) What do you mean by schedule of reinforcement?

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6) How does a superstitious behaviour acquired? Explain it in the light of Sinner's theory.

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7) How can the principles of operant conditioning be applied in the modification of undesirable behaviours?

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3.4 LET US SUM UP

Learning theory of personality presents a model of personality that emphasises observable behaviour, the relationship between stimuli and responses, and the impact of learning. The behaviourist position is that personality is no more (or less) than a collection of learned behaviour patterns. Personality, like other learned behaviour, is acquired through classical and operant conditioning, observational learning, reinforcement, extinction, generalisation, and discrimination. In the present unit we have discuss two important learning theories of personality. First, we focused on Pavlov' theory of learning and then we explained Skinner theory of personality.

Classical conditioning, called Pavlovian conditioning, explains how a previously neutral stimulus can come to have a learned effect on someone. This takes place by pairing (associating) an unconditioned stimulus (which already produces an unconditioned response) with a neutral stimulus (conditioned stimulus). In this way, the organism learns to respond to the conditioned stimulus with a conditioned response which is like the unconditioned response. The strength of a conditioned response depends on the number of pairings between the conditioned stimulus and the unconditioned stimulus and also on the interval, which elapses between

the presentation of conditioned stimulus and unconditioned stimulus. The acquisition of irrational fears or phobias, sexual hang-up (fetishism), prejudice and hostile feelings has successfully been explained through the process of classical conditioning. Once the organism is conditioned to one stimulus, it is often found that it will respond to other stimuli, similar in some dimension to it. This phenomenon is known as stimulus generalisation. Stimulus generalisation plays very important adaptive role. Opposite to this phenomenon is stimulus discrimination. Within the framework of classical conditioning the ability to discriminate between the two stimuli is developed when one of the two similar stimuli is consistently followed by an unconditioned stimulus while the other is not. This phenomenon is accounted for developing the experimental neurosis.

The principles of classical conditioning are found very us effective for the modification of behaviour. It has been applied in the treatment of neurosis, phobia, alcoholism and nicotine addiction Rather than focusing on the root of the problem like a traditional psychopathologist, a behaviourist could focus on eliminating the symptom by bringing classical conditioning into play. By reinforcing the extinction of the symptom, the psychopathological illness of the patient could be eliminated.

According to Skinner's theory, individual differences in behaviour are largely the result of different kinds of learning experiences encountered by different people. Some behaviour patterns may be learned through direct experience Skinner stated that the personality of an individual can be understood through the study of his behaviour. He further stated that behaviour can be distinguished in two types – respondent and operant. Operant behaviours are those behaviours which are not caused by any specific stimuli of the environment. Classical conditioning is labeled by Skinner as respondent conditioning, whereas his own conditioning procedure is termed by him as operant conditioning.

Skinner's entire system is based on operant conditioning. In operant conditioning the desired behaviour of the organism is strengthened by presenting the reinforcement. A reinforcer is defined as anything that strengthens a tendency to behave in a particular way. In other words a reinforcer is a stimulus event which if it occurs in the proper temporal relation with a response, tends to maintain or to increase the strength of a response. Reinforcer may either be positive or negative. The likelihood of the behaviour will be increased by the positive reinforcement (adding something pleasant) and also by the negative reinforcement (turning of/removing something unpleasant).

Skinner identified different schedules of reinforcement. In continuous reinforcement schedule, the organism gets reinforcement every time he does the behaviour. In the fixed ratio schedule the reinforcement is given to the organism if he made the response at certain number of times. For example if the rat presses the lever three times, say, he gets reinforcement, Or five times, Or twenty times, Or "x" times. In fixed interval schedule a timing device of some sort is used. If the rat presses the lever at least once during a particular stretch of time (say 20 seconds), then he gets reinforcement. If he fails to do so, he does not get it. Variable ratio means you change the "x" each time — first it takes 3 presses to get the food, then 10, then 1, then 7 and so on. Variable interval means you keep changing the time period — first 20 seconds, then 5, then 35, then 10 and so on. With the variable interval schedule, they no longer "pace" themselves, because they can no longer establish a "rhythm" between behaviour and reward. Most importantly, these schedules are very resistant to extinction.

An aversive stimulus is the opposite of a reinforcing stimulus, something we might find unpleasant or painful. A behaviour followed by an aversive stimulus results in a decreased probability of the behaviour occurring in the future. But Skinner doesn't "approve" of the use of aversive stimuli - not because of ethics, but because they don't work well. Instead of extinguishing the behaviour it only suppresses it. Skinner, on the other hand believed that conditioned or secondary reinforcers are of great importance in the control of human behaviour.

It is obvious that our every action is not maintained by the presentation of unconditioned or primary reinforcers. The most common example of secondary reinforcer is money. It has no intrinsic value of its own, but being paired with a number of different unconditioned or primary reinforcers, it has itself acquired the reinforcing quality. The notion of secondary reinforcement is important in Skinner's theory of personality, and he used it effectively to account for the maintenance of many responses that takes place as part of our social behaviour. According to Skinner method of successive approximation or shaping helps us in learning of complex behaviours. It involves first reinforcing a behaviour only vaguely similar to the one desired. Once that is established, you look out for variations that come a little closer to what you want, and so on, until you have the animal performing a behaviour that would never show up in ordinary life.

Process of operant conditioning is found useful for the development and treatment of superstitious and abnormal behaviour. According to Skinner when the reinforcement happens to occur purely due to the chance factor at the time the individual made a particular response, the individual started to believe that the particular response made by him was the cause for getting the reinforcement, while there was no functional or causal relationship between the response he made and the reinforcement he got.

According to Skinner many of our superstitious beliefs are the result of this conditioning. The constructs like repressed wishes, an identity crisis, conflicts between ego and superego, etc. did not appeal Skinner for the explanation of the abnormal behaviour. He advocated that the framework on which his theory is based is sufficient to understand and explain the abnormal behaviour. Abnormal behaviour is assumed to be the same in its principles of development as normal behaviour. In putting forward a programme for the treatment of abnormal behaviour, Skinner repeatedly asserted that the goal is simply to replace abnormal behaviour with normal behaviour.

3.5 UNIT END QUESTIONS

- 1) How does the learning theory of personality differ from the psychoanalytic theory of personality?
- 2) What are the main features of Behaviouristic theory of personality?
- 3) Discuss the principles of classical conditioning..
- 4) Discuss the process of classical conditioning.
- 5) Describe the principles of classical conditioning, and discuss how it can be applied in explaining the development of personality.
- 6) What are the salient features of Skinner's theory of personality? Discuss it.
- 7) What is 'operant behaviour'? How does it differ from the 'respondent behaviour'?

- 8) What do you mean by schedule of reinforcement? Discuss its importance in the acquisition of behaviour.
- 9) How does a superstitious behaviour acquired? Explain it in the light of Sinner's theory.
- 10) How can the principles of operant conditioning be applied in the modification of undesirable behaviours?

3.6 GLOSSARY

Classical conditioning	: A form of leaning in which stimuli initially incapable of eliciting certain responses acquire the ability to do so through repeated pairing with other stimuli that are able to elicit such responses.
Conditioned response	: A response evoked by a conditioned stimulus.
Conditioned stimulus	: A stimulus which acquires the capacity to evoke particular responses through repeated pairing with another stimulus capable of eliciting such reactions.
Continuous reinforcement	: Condition under which a particular form of behaviour is followed by reinforcement on every occasion it is emitted.
Experimental neurosis	: Disturbances in behaviour produced in the laboratory by requiring organisms to make discriminations of which they are incapable.
Extinction	: The process through which conditioned response is weakened and eventually eliminated.
Fixed interval schedule of reinforcement	: A schedule in which the first response following the passage of a fixed interval of time yields reinforcement.
Fixed ratio schedule of reinforcement	: A schedule in which the first response following the emission of a specific number of responses yields reinforcement.
Generalisation	: The process by which a learned response will occur in more situations than those in which was first learned; it will be also applied to similar situations.
Higher-order conditioning	: A process in which previously established stimuli serve as the basis for further conditioning.
Operant	: Responses freely emitted by organisms. The frequency with which such responses appear may be strongly affected by the application of various schedules of reinforcement.
Operant conditioning	: A form of learning in which responses that yield positive consequences or lead to escape from negative outcomes are strengthened.

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- Schedules of reinforcement :** Rules governing the delivery of reinforcement. When a given schedule is in effect, reinforcement can be obtained only by meeting its requirements.
- Secondary reinforcer :** A stimulus which acquires reinforcing properties through association with a primary reinforcer such as food or water.
- Second-order conditioning:** Classical conditioning established on the basis of earlier conditioning. That is, previously conditioned stimuli are employed as the basis for the further conditioning.
- Successive approximation :** Small changes in the behaviour in the direction desired by a trainer. Such changes are reinforced during the process of shaping.
- Superstitious conditioning :** The type of conditioning, in which there is no causal relationship between the response and the reinforcer, is referred to by Skinner as superstitious conditioning.
- Unconditioned response :** A response evoked by an unconditioned stimulus.
- Unconditioned stimulus :** A stimulus possessing the capacity to elicit reactions from the organisms in the absence of prior conditioning.

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UNIT 4 HUMANISTIC AND SELF THEORY (MASLOW AND ROGERS)

Structure

- 4.0 Introduction
- 4.1 Objectives
- 4.2 Humanistic and Self Theories of Personality
- 4.3 Abraham Maslow: Humanistic Approach of Personality
 - 4.3.1 Hierarchy of Needs
 - 4.3.2 Deficiency Needs
 - 4.3.3 Growth Needs
 - 4.3.4 Characteristics of Self-actualisers
 - 4.3.5 Evaluation
- 4.4 Carl Rogers's Theory of Personality
 - 4.4.1 Enduring Aspects of Personality
 - 4.4.1.1 The Organism
 - 4.4.1.2 The Self (Real and Ideal)
 - 4.4.1.3 Congruity and Incongruity
 - 4.4.2 Self-actualisation
 - 4.4.3 The Development of Self
 - 4.4.4 Evaluation
- 4.5 Let Us Sum Up
- 4.6 Unit End Questions
- 4.7 Glossary
- 4.8 Suggested Readings and References

4.0 INTRODUCTION

The theories which focus on the entire person and emphasise the view that persons are inherently good with unique attributes for greatness has been labeled as humanistic, or organismic, or person-centered theories of personality. In this unit we will first discuss the characteristic features of humanistic theories, and then we will come across to explain the distinctive features of Abraham Maslow's Humanistic Theory of Personality. After that we will turn to discuss the Carl Rogers's Person-Centered Theory of Personality.

4.1 OBJECTIVES

After reading this unit, you will be able to:

- Define the humanistic approach of Maslow and Rogers;
- Explain the theories of Maslow and Rogers;
- Describe the characteristic features of Maslow's theory of personality;
- Explain the hierarchy of needs as given by Maslow;
- Differentiate between deficit needs and growth needs;
- Explain the characteristics of self-actualised person; and
- Analyse various methods used in social psychology.

4.2 HUMANISTIC AND SELF THEORIES OF PERSONALITY

The Humanistic Approach began in response to concerns by therapists against perceived limitations of Psychodynamic theories, especially psychoanalysis. Psychologists and psychoanalysts such as Carl Rogers and Abraham Maslow felt that the existing (psychodynamic) theories failed to adequately address issues such as the meaning of behaviour, and the nature of healthy growth. However, the result was not simply new variations on psychodynamic theory, but rather a fundamentally new approach.

There are several factors which distinguish the Humanistic Approach from other approaches, that is, the difference can be seen in the emphasis on subjective meaning, a rejection of *determinism*, and a concern for positive growth rather than pathology.

While one might argue that some psychodynamic theories provide a vision of healthy growth (including Jung's concept of *individuation*), the other characteristics distinguish the Humanistic Approach from every other approach within psychology (and sometimes lead theorists from other approaches to say the Humanistic Approach is not a science at all).

Most psychologists believe that behaviour can only be understood objectively (by an impartial observer), but the humanists argue that this results in concluding that an individual is incapable of understanding their own behaviour—a view which they see as both paradoxical and dangerous to well-being.

Instead, humanists like Rogers argue that the meaning of behaviour is essentially personal and subjective; they further argue that accepting this idea is not unscientific, because ultimately all individuals are subjective: what makes science reliable is not that scientists are purely objective, but that the nature of observed events can be agreed upon by different observers (a process Rogers calls *intersubjective verification*).

The main aim of humanistic approach is to provide concepts and methods for stimulating learning, growth and development both in individual persons as well as in society, thus enhancing well-being and the overall quality of life. Maslow coined the term “the Third Force” to describe the Humanistic Approach, to emphasise how it differed from the Psychodynamic and Behaviourist Approaches, which dominated psychology in the 1950's.

This “third force”, in contrast with clinical psychology, influenced by Freudian psycho-analysis, which studies mental illness, i.e. the negative side of human behaviour, and traditional academic, experimental psychology, influenced by behaviourism, which tends to reduce human behaviour to statistical correlations between different kinds of stimuli, responses and personality traits. Instead of merely modeling normal behaviour or of curing clear dysfunctions, a humanistic psychologist tries to help people to develop in a better way, thus making them more competent, more aware, happier, in the hope of reaching some state of “optimal” mental health.

The central theme in humanistic theories is the drive towards self-actualisation, to realise one's full potential. Other themes include personal growth, openness to experience, living in the present, personal responsibility, and inherent goodness of people. For the humanists, the unit of analysis is the perceived reality.

Probably the best known proponent of this approach is Abraham Maslow. What distinguishes his work from that of other "humanists", such as Carl Rogers or Erich Fromm is that he proposes a model of how a happy, healthy, well-functioning person behaves, which is based on concrete observations of real people, rather than on formulating ideal requirements.

Also Maslow proposes a simple and intuitively appealing theory of motivation, which explains where such a "self-actualising" personality comes from. In parallel with systems theory, Maslow reacts against too much reductionism in psychological modeling, and proposes an alternative holistic approach of personality research.

In recent years, a number of initiatives have appeared which, while influenced significantly by humanistic ideas and theories, have new directions. Perhaps the most significant is *positive psychology*, a term coined by Dr. Martin Seligman when he was President of the American Psychological Association in 2000. Positive psychology, like the humanistic approach, focuses on enhancing human potential, but embraces research methods (e.g., surveys, group data) which humanists have traditionally avoided.

Another area influenced by the humanistic approach has been *coaching psychology*. While the term originated in "personal coaching" in sports, it more generally refers to a focus on enhancing individual potential, and the field has gradually become a specific area within many psychology associations.

4.3 ABRAHAM MASLOW: HUMANISTIC APPROACH TO PERSONALITY

Abraham Maslow, widely regarded as one of the founders of the Humanistic Approach, was born on April 1, 1908 in Brooklyn, New York. He received his BA in 1930, his MA in 1931, and his PhD in 1934, all in psychology, all from the University of Wisconsin. A year after graduation, he returned to New York to work with E. L. Thorndike at Columbia, where Maslow became interested in research on human sexuality. He began teaching full time at Brooklyn College. During this period of his life, he came into contact with the many European intellectuals who were migrating to the US, and Brooklyn in particular, at that time. Persons like Adler, Fromm, Horney, as well as several Gestalt and Freudian psychologists also migrated to Brooklyn initially. Maslow served as the chair of the psychology department at Brandeis from 1951 to 1969. While working here he met Kurt Goldstein, who had put forward the idea of self-actualisation in his famous book, *The Organism* (1934).

It was also here that he began his crusade for a humanistic psychology, something ultimately much more important to him than his own theorising. He spent his final years in semi retirement in California, until, on June 8 1970, he died of a heart attack after years of ill health.

Maslow developed a theory of personality that has influenced a number of different fields. This wide influence is due in part to the high level of practicality of Maslow's theory. His theory accurately describes many realities of personal experiences. Humanists do not believe that human beings are pushed and pulled by mechanical forces, either of stimuli and reinforcements (behaviourism) or of unconscious instinctual impulses (psychoanalysis).

Humanists focus upon potentials. They believe that humans strive for an upper level of capabilities. Humans seek the frontiers of creativity, the highest reaches of consciousness and wisdom. This has been labeled "fully functioning person", "healthy personality", or as Maslow calls this level, "self-actualising person." Maslow's theory of personality can be explained under the following headings:

1) Hierarchy of needs, 2) Deficit needs, 3) Growth needs, 4) Self-actualisers

4.3.1 Hierarchy of Needs

Maslow proposed a theory of human motivation based on hierarchy of needs. The lower a need in the hierarchy the more prepotent or dominating that need is. In other words, when several needs are active, the lowest need will be most compelling. The higher order needs emerge only when the lower level needs are satisfied.

The first four levels are considered *deficiency or deprivation needs* ("D-needs") in that their lack of satisfaction causes a deficiency that motivates people to meet these needs.

For instance the *Physiological needs* which are at the lowest level on the hierarchy, include necessities such as air, food, and water. These tend to be satisfied for most people, but they become predominant when unmet. During emergencies, *safety needs* such as health and security rise to the forefront. Once these two levels are met, *belongingness needs*, such as obtaining love and intimate relationships or close friendships, become important. The next level, *esteem needs*, include the need for recognition from others, confidence, achievement, and self-esteem. The highest level is *self-actualisation*, or the self-fulfillment.

Behaviour in this case is not driven or motivated by deficiencies but rather one's desire for personal growth and the need to become all the things that a person is capable of becoming (Maslow, 1970). Now we will discuss each level of needs one by one:

The lowest level in the Maslow's hierarchy is the *physiological needs*.

These include the most basic needs that are vital to survival, such as the need for water, air, food and sleep. Maslow believed that these needs are the most basic and instinctive needs in the hierarchy because all needs become secondary until these physiological needs are met. These needs are such that if they are not satisfied the organism dies. If the threat of dying because of perturbation of the physiological equilibrium has vanished, the organism can direct its attention to more indirect threats, such as the danger of being caught by a predator, and try to avoid them

The next needs in the hierarchy are *safety needs*.

These include needs for safety and security. Security needs are important for survival, but they are not as demanding as the physiological needs. Examples of security needs include a desire for steady employment, health insurance, safe neighbourhoods and shelter from the environment.

At the third level of the hierarchy are *belongingness needs*.

These include needs for belonging, love and affection. Maslow considered these needs to be less basic than physiological and security needs. Relationships such as friendships, romantic attachments and families help fulfill this need for companionship and acceptance, as does involvement in social, community or religious groups.

At the fourth level of hierarchy are *self-esteem needs*

After the first three needs have been satisfied, esteem needs becomes increasingly important. Maslow noted two versions of esteem needs, a lower one and a higher one.

The lower one is the need for the respect of others, the need for status, recognition, fame, prestige, and attention.

The higher one is the need for self-respect, the need for strength, competence, mastery, self-confidence, independence and freedom. These needs rank higher because it rests more on inner competence won through experience. Deprivation of these needs can lead to an inferiority complex, weakness and helplessness. Satisfaction of the self-esteem need leads to feelings of self-confidence, worth, strength, capability and adequacy of being useful and necessary in the world. These feelings in turn give rise to either basic discouragement or else compensatory or neurotic trends. An appreciation of the necessity of basic self-confidence and an understanding of how helpless people are without it, can be easily gained from a study of severe traumatic neurosis

The highest level need is *self-actualisation*.

“What a man can be, he must be”. This forms the basis of the perceived need for self-actualisation. This level of need pertains to what a person’s full potential is and realising that potential. Maslow describes this desire as the desire to become more and more what one is, to become everything that one is capable of becoming. This is a broad definition of the need for self-actualisation, but when applied to individuals the need is specific.

For example one individual may have the strong desire to become an ideal parent, while for another it may be expressed athletically, and in the third it may be expressed in painting, pictures, or inventions. As mentioned earlier, in order to reach a clear understanding of this level of need one must first not only achieve the previous needs, physiological, safety, love, and esteem, but master these needs. Below are Maslow’s descriptions of the consequences that what will happen if these needs are not satisfied.

4.3.2 Deficiency Needs

It has been stated in the earlier discussion that the first four levels of needs are called *deficit needs*, or *D-needs*. If you don’t have enough of something, then it is said that you have a deficit that is you feel the need.

But if you get all you need, you feel nothing at all! In other words, they cease to be motivating. He also talks about these levels in terms of *homeostasis*. Homeostasis is the principle by which the bodily system (thermostat) operates. In other words, when it gets too cold, the thermostat switches the heat on and when it gets too hot, it switches the heat off. In the same way, human body, when it lacks a certain substance, develops a hunger for it; when it gets enough of it, then the hunger stops.

Maslow simply extends this homeostatic principle to needs, such as safety, belongingness, and esteem about which we do not ordinarily think of in these terms. In terms of overall development, we move through these levels a bit like stages.

As newborns, our focus (if not our entire set of needs) is on the satisfaction of the physiological needs. Soon, we begin to recognise that we need to be safe. Soon after that, we crave attention and affection. A bit later, we look for self-esteem. Mind you, this is in the first couple of years! Under stressful conditions, or when survival is threatened, we can “regress” to a lower need level.

When you find that your great career falls flat, you might seek out a little attention. When your family decides to leave you, it seems that love is again all you ever wanted. If you have significant problems along your development, that is a period of extreme insecurity such as hunger as a child, or the loss of a family member through death or divorce, or significant neglect or abuse, it is possible that one may “fixate” on that set of needs for the rest of one’s life.

4.3.3 Growth Needs

Maslow has used a variety of terms to refer to the last level of needs. He has called it growth motivation (in contrast to deficit motivation). They are called the *being needs* (or *B-needs*, in contrast to *D-needs*), and self-actualisation. These are needs that do not involve balance or homeostasis. They involve the continuous desire to fulfill potentials, to “be all that you can be”. If you want to be truly self-actualising, you need to have your lower needs taken care of, at least to a considerable extent. This makes sense, which is if you are hungry, you are scrambling to get food; if you are unsafe, you have to be continuously on guard; if you are isolated and unloved, you have to satisfy that need; if you have a low sense of self-esteem, you have to be defensive or compensate. When lower needs are unmet, you can not fully devote yourself to fulfilling your potentials.

The question becomes, of course, what exactly Maslow means by self-actualisation. To answer that, we need to look at the kind of people he called self-actualised persons. Fortunately, he did this for us, using a qualitative method called biographical analysis. He began by picking out a group of people, some historical figures, some people he knew, whom he felt clearly met the standard of self-actualisation. Included in this august group were Abraham Lincoln, Thomas Jefferson, Albert Einstein, Eleanor Roosevelt, Jane Adams, William James, Albert Schweitzer, Benedict Spinoza, and Aldous Huxley, plus 12 unnamed people who were alive at the time Maslow did his research. He then looked at their biographies, writings, the acts and words of those he knew personally, and so on. From these sources, he developed a list of qualities that seemed characteristic of these people, as opposed to the great mass of us.

4.3.4 Characteristics of Self-actualisers

According to Maslow, people who are self actualised, were

- 1) *Reality-centered*, which means they could differentiate what is fake and dishonest from what is real and genuine.
- 2) *Problem-centered*, meaning they treated life's difficulties as problems demanding solutions, not as personal troubles to be railed at or surrendered to.
- 3) Had a different *perception of means and ends*. They felt that the ends do not necessarily justify the means, that the means could be ends themselves, and that the means, that is the journey was often more important than the ends.
- 4) Had different ways of relating to others. First, they enjoyed solitude, and were comfortable being alone. And they enjoyed deeper personal relations with a few close friends and family members, rather than more shallow relationships with many people.
- 5) Enjoyed *autonomy*, a relative independence from physical and social needs.
- 6) Resisted *enculturation*, that is, they were not susceptible to social pressure to be "well adjusted" or to "fit in". They were, in fact, nonconformists in the best sense.
- 7) Had an *unhostile sense of humor*. They preferred to joke at their own expense, or at the human condition, and never directing their humor at others.
- 8) Had a quality of *acceptance of self and others*, by which he meant that these people would be more likely to take you as you are than try to change you into what they thought you should be.
This same acceptance applied to their attitudes towards themselves: If some quality of theirs wasn't harmful, they let it be, even enjoying it as a personal quirk.
- 9) They were often strongly motivated to change negative qualities in themselves that could be changed.
- 10) They possessed qualities such as *spontaneity and simplicity*.
- 11) They preferred being themselves rather than being pretentious or artificial.
- 12) They had a sense of *humility and respect* towards others — something Maslow also called democratic value.
- 13) They had a quality Maslow called *human kinship*, that is social interest, compassion, and humanity.
- 14) Were strong in their ethical behaviours.
- 15) They were spiritual but never conventionally religious in nature.
- 16) They had a certain *freshness of appreciation*, an ability to see things, even ordinary things, with wonder.
- 17) They had the ability to be *creative, inventive, and original*.
- 18) They tended to have more *peak experiences* than the average person. A peak experience is one that takes you out of yourself, that makes you feel

very tiny, or very large, to some extent one with life or nature or God. It gives you a feeling of being a part of the infinite and the eternal. These experiences tend to leave their mark on a person, change them for the better, and many people actively seek them out. They are also called mystical experiences, and are an important part of many religious and philosophical traditions.

Maslow did not however think that self actualised persons were perfect. There were several flaws or imperfections he discovered along the way as well. These were as given below:

- 1) They often suffered considerable anxiety and guilt. These anxiety and guilt were realistic ones rather than misplaced or neurotic versions.
- 2) Some of them were absent minded and overly kind.
- 3) Also some of them had unexpected moments of ruthlessness, surgical coldness, and loss of humor.
- 4) Maslow also stated that when a self actualised person does not get their needs fulfilled, they respond with metapathologies. That is they respond with a list of problems.
- 5) When forced to live without these values, the self-actualiser develops depression, despair, disgust, alienation, and a degree of cynicism.

4.3.5 Evaluation

Maslow has been a very inspirational figure in personality theories. In the 1960's in particular, people were tired of the reductionistic, mechanistic messages of the behaviourists and physiological psychologists. They were looking for meaning and purpose in their lives, even a higher, more mystical meaning. Maslow was one of the pioneers in that movement to bring the human being back into psychology and the person back into personality.

Moreover, Maslow's unique contribution lies in his preoccupation with healthy people rather than sick ones and his feeling that studies of two groups generate different types of theory. Maslow chose the more direct course of studying healthy people whose wholeness and unity of personality are readily apparent. But in spite of this unique contribution Maslow's theory has been criticized on many grounds.

The most common criticism concerns his methodology: Picking a small number of people that he himself declared self-actualising, then reading about them or talking with them, and coming to conclusions about what self-actualisation is in the first place does not sound like good science to many people.

Another criticism is that Maslow placed certain constraints on self-actualisation. First, Kurt Goldstein and Carl Rogers used the phrase to refer to what every a living creature does, that is to try to grow, and to fulfill its biological destiny. Maslow limits self actualisation to be achieved only by about two percent of the human species, while most do not achieve this. While Rogers felt that babies were the best examples of human self-actualisation, Maslow saw it as something achieved only rarely by the young.

Another criticism is that we take much take care of our lower needs before self-actualisation comes to the forefront. And yet we can find many examples of

people who exhibit least aspects of self-actualisation and were far from having their lower needs taken care of. Many of our best artists and authors, for example, suffered from poverty, bad upbringing, neuroses, and depression.

Self Assessment Questions

- 1) Discuss the importance of humanistic approach in the study of personality.

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- 2) Describe the salient features of Maslow's theory of personality.

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- 3) Critically evaluate Maslow's need hierarchy theory.

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- 4) Distinguish between deficiency needs and growth needs.

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- 5) Explain the characteristics of self-actualising person.

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4.4 CARL ROGER'S THEORY OF PERSONALITY

Carl Rogers was born on January 8, 1902, in Oak Park, Illinois. Raised on a farm from the age of twelve, Rogers entered the Agricultural College of the University of Wisconsin in 1919, where he graduated with a degree in history. While in college he felt a religious calling and eventually began training to become a Protestant minister, and after graduating in 1924 he enrolled at the Union Theological Seminary in New York City. From there he transferred to Teachers College at Columbia University in order to pursue counseling rather than the strictly religious aspect of his ministerial profession.

He subsequently focused on clinical and educational psychology, writing his doctoral dissertation on personality adjustment in children. Throughout the 1930s, Rogers worked in the field of child psychology, and in 1940 he accepted a position as a professor of psychology at Ohio State University. It was at this time that he began to develop the theories and methodology for which he would later become renowned. The incipient concepts of Rogers's therapeutic approach appeared in his 1942 book *Counseling and Psychotherapy*, and within the next few years he developed his concept of the self as the organising element in human personality and the principles of the "nondirective," or client-centered, style of therapy.

In 1945 he took a position as professor of psychology and head of the counseling center at the University of Chicago, where, over the next twelve years, he further refined and articulated his ideas, publishing *Client-Centered Therapy* (1951) during this time. A charismatic figure, Rogers's influence over students, colleagues, and various collaborators, as well as his publication of best-selling books such as *On Becoming a Person* (1961) and *Person to Person* (1967) made him the central figure in American humanistic psychology throughout his lifetime.

Carl Rogers was not only one of the founders of the Humanistic Approach, but also arguably the most influential therapist in the 20th century. Rogers's theory is basically phenomenological, in that it placed a strong emphasis on the experience of the person, their feelings, their values, and all that is summed up by the expression "inner life". His theory is also known as self-theory. The other name of his theory is person-centered theory. His theory grew out of his own experience in working with individual in the therapeutic relationship

In terms of his theory, there are two fundamental ideas which are particularly worth noting. First, Rogers talked about healthy development in terms of how individuals perceived their own being. Healthy individuals will tend to see *congruence* between their sense of who they are (*self*) and who they feel they should be (*ideal self*). While no one tends to experience perfect congruence at all times, the relative degree of congruence is an indicator of health.

The second fundamental idea is Rogers's concept of the *conditions for healthy growth*, and the role of a therapist in fostering healthy growth. Through a process Rogers called person-centered therapy; the therapist seeks to provide empathy, openness, and unconditional positive regard. Rogers called his technique non-directive therapy, based on the concept that the therapist is simply a "mirror" who reflects the individual's thoughts and feelings.

Rogers's theory can be explained under the following three headings:

- 1) Enduring aspects of personality
- 2) Self-actualisation
- 3) Development of self

4.4.1 Enduring Aspects of Personality

Rogers' theory of personality evolved out of his work as a clinical psychologist and developed as an offshoot of his theory of client-centered (later called person-centered) therapy. Since the main aim of his theory is to explain the growth and development within the individual, so his theory does not appear to lay much emphasis on personality development, rather prefer to devote his attention to such constructs that are of fundamental importance to his theory. These are: (i) the organism and (ii) the self.

4.4.1.1 The Organism

Rogers approach to the study of persons is phenomenological and idiographic. His view of human behaviour is that it is "exquisitely rational". Furthermore, in his opinion: "the core of man's nature is essentially positive" and he is a "trustworthy organism".

According to Rogers the organism is the locus of all experience, including everything potentially available to awareness, at any given moment. The totality of experience constitutes the phenomenal field. The phenomenal field is the individual's frame of reference that can only be known to the person. It can never be known to another, except through empathetic experience and at that level too, can never be known perfectly.

Rogers emphasised that the individual's way of behaving depends upon the phenomenal field (subjective reality) and not upon the stimulating conditions (external reality). The phenomenal field at any given moment is made up of conscious and unconscious experiences. The person tends to check his or her experiences against the reality. This testing of reality provides with dependable knowledge of the world so that one is able to behave realistically. In most of the cases the person accepts his or her experiences as true representation of reality, while in reality they may not be the true representation. As a result the person may develop misconceptions about himself/herself and about the external world.

4.4.1.2 The Self (Real and Ideal)

Rogers developed one of the most systematic models of self, in relation to the personality-functioning. The self or self-concept, is one of the central concepts in his theory, and the theory is often referred to as the self-theory of personality. Rogers defined self as the organised, consistent, conceptual gestalt composed of perceptions of the characteristics of the "I" or "me", and the perception of the relationship "I" or "me" to various aspects of life, together the values attached to those perceptions.

In short, it is one's picture of him or hers. Rogers further distinguishes two aspects or subsystems of self: The real self and the ideal self. The real self is the "you" that, if all goes well, you will become, while the ideal self is what the person would like to be.

By ideal, Rogers is suggesting something not real, something that is always out of our reach, the standard we can not meet. Thus, Rogers's personality theory distinguishes between two personalities. The real self, which is created and developed through the actualising tendency, it is the self that one can become. The demands of society, however, do not always support the actualising tendency and we are forced to live under conditions that are out of step with our tendencies. The ideal self is the ideal created through the demands of society. Rogers does not see it as something to strive for (that is the real self) but an ideal imposed on us we can never fully reach. Rogers' view of 'hidden' personality relates to the person one could be given the right circumstances within society and for an individual to be truly happy (and for self-actualisation to be realised) their public and private selves must be as similar as possible. For an individual to be truly happy and for self-actualisation to be realised, the public and hidden selves must be as similar as possible. Rogers believed that when all aspects of a person's life, surroundings and thoughts are in harmony then the ideal state of congruence is reached (Pervin & Oliver 1997).

4.4.1.3 Congruity and Incongruity

The importance of the concept of organism and self, in Rogers theory becomes clear when we examine the idea of congruence and incongruence between this self as perceived, and the self as actually experienced by the organism. When the symbolised experiences that constitute the self, faithfully mirror the experiences of the organism, the self and organism are said to be congruent, that is the individual is believed to be adjusted, mature and fully functioning. Otherwise, there would be incongruence. According to Rogers, most of the ways of behaving that are adopted by the organism are those that are consistent with the concept of self. In some instances, behaviour may be brought about by organic experiences and needs which have not been symbolised. Such behaviour may be inconsistent with the structure of the self but in such instances the behaviour is not "owned" by the individual.

Rogers suggests that the incongruent individual who is always on the defensive and cannot be open to all experiences is not functioning ideally and may even be malfunctioning. They work hard at maintaining/protecting their self concept. Because their lives are not authentic this is a difficult task and they are under constant threat. They deploy *defense mechanisms* to achieve this. He describes two mechanisms: *distortion* and *denial*.

Distortion occurs when the individual perceives a threat to their self concept. They distort the perception until it fits their self concept. This defensive behaviour reduces the consciousness of the threat but not the threat itself. And so, as the threats mount, the work of protecting the self concept becomes more difficult and the individual becomes more defensive and rigid in their self structure.

If the incongruence is immoderate this process may lead the individual to a state that would typically be described as neurotic. Their functioning becomes precarious and psychologically vulnerable. If the situation worsens it is possible that the defenses cease to function altogether and the individual becomes aware of the incongruence of their situation. Their personality becomes disorganised and bizarre; irrational behaviour, associated with earlier denied aspects of self, may erupt uncontrollably.

Thus, it may be concluded that psychological adjustment exists when the concept of the self is such that all the sensory and visceral experiences of the organism are, or may be, assimilated on a symbolic level into a consistent relationship with the concept of self. Psychological maladjustment exists when the organism denies awareness of significant sensory and visceral experiences, which consequently are not symbolised and organised into the gestalt of the self structure.

When this situation exists, there is a basic or potential psychological tension. Any experience which is inconsistent with the organisation of the structure of the self may be perceived as a threat, and the more of these perceptions there are, the more rigidly the self structure is organised to maintain itself.

4.4.2 Self-Actualisation

According to Rogers, only the single motive is there that impels human beings to action, and that motive can be described as the actualising tendency. Rogers (1959) maintains that the human “organism” has an underlying “actualising tendency”, which aims to develop all capacities in ways that maintain or enhance the organism and move it toward autonomy. This tendency is directional, constructive and present in all living things.

The actualising tendency can be suppressed but can never be destroyed without the destruction of the organism (Rogers, 1977). The concept of the actualising tendency is the only motive force in the theory. It encompasses all motivations; tension, need, or drive reductions; and creative as well as pleasure-seeking tendencies (Rogers, 1959).

Only the organism as a whole has this tendency, parts of it (such as the self) do not. Maddi (1996) describes it as a “biological pressure to fulfill the genetic blueprint’. Each person thus has a fundamental mandate to fulfill one’s potential. This tendency is selective, and pays attention only to those aspects of the environment which promises to move the person constructively, in the direction of fulfillment and wholeness. Therefore, as already stated, the single motivating force is ‘the self-actualisation drive’ and single goal of life is ‘to become self-actualised’

4.4.3 The Development of Self

Rogers, unlike Freud, Sullivan, and Erikson, did not try to propose a stage theory of personality development. In other words, Rogers did not explain the personality development in steps or stages; rather he emphasised the importance of congruence between the self of the person and his experiences in the development of personality.

Adjustment and psychological health have also been explained in terms of realistic self-concept that is congruent with self. Rogers maintained that unless we are taught inappropriately by those whose love we need, our self-concept is based on our own perceptions, and fits well with our experiences.

If we are taught to have a self-concept that does not match what we actually experience, we are going to have difficulty. For example, you might learn that nice people never get angry and then find yourself in a situation in which you are insulted; your self-concept does not allow you to perceive your feeling of anger accurately.

The greater the discrepancy between our self and our experiences, the greater the maladjustment and anxiety, and the harder we must reconcile what we believe ourselves and what we encounter in the world around us.

Rogers also suggests that if there is a large self-experience discrepancy, and if there is no way to avoid all of the relevant experiences, the defensive system may be unable to handle anxiety; it may breakdown and result in a disorganisation of personality.

Early in our lives, we each have direct experience with pleasure and pain; for example, we obviously learn that it is good to eat and bad to be hungry, good to be in mother's arm and bad to touch a hot stove and so on. Beyond these simple physical reactions, there is a need for positive regard. That is, we want to be loved and respected as individuals. Our parents tend to be the primary source of love and affection, and it is desperately important to maintain their good will.

We want them to praise us, say that we are good, and express positive feelings toward us. When we do something they dislike and they let us know it, the experience is painful one. We strive to alter our behaviour to get back in their good graces.

The crucial problem occurs when the beliefs, values, and perceptions of parents do not fit the child's experiences and feelings. Let us look at an example of the process. A three year old boy is upset when his mother gives birth to a second baby. He must share love and attention with the new addition, be quiet when the baby is sleeping and so on. From the brother's perspective, the situation involves rejection and loss of status: most likely he feels not only depressed but hostile. The obvious target of his hostility is the new sister. One day his mother finds him deliberately pinching the sister's arm to make her cry. What does the mother do? Her decision at this point is described by Rogers as a critical one in the development of the boy's self-concept. The usual response of the mother will be to punish the child and reject him because of his hostility and force him to love his sister. The conflict for the boy is clear. Since the need for mother's love is vitally important, so he may alter his self-concept to conform to what the mother wanted. In this case, the mother's reaction might serve to help give this child a self-concept, inconsistent with his experiences.

Rogers recognised the three crucial points for the parents to keep in mind.

- 1) First, the child's feeling must be recognised and accepted.
- 2) Second, the mother should avoid threatening the child with the most threatening punishment of all – loss of love.
- 3) Third, the hostile behaviour must be clearly and unmistakably rejected and prevented.

4.4.4 Evaluation

The person-centered approach, being the unique approach to understanding personality and human relationships, found wide application in various domains such as psychotherapy and counseling, organisations, and other group settings. Rogers's greatest contribution may lie in his encouraging a humane and ethical treatment of persons, approaching psychology as a human science rather than a natural science.

Rogers's person-centered approach has been criticised on many grounds. The most important being the charge that many psychologists tend to impose their views based upon naïve phenomenology. For instance, Rogers accepted client's statement to be always true and reliable, when self-reports normally lack credibility.

Rogers has also been criticised for ignoring unconscious determinants of behaviour, attested by psycho-analytic investigators over a long period.

It is also criticised on the ground that the theory deals only with surface issues and does not explore deeper areas.

Self Assessment Questions

- 1) Discuss the salient features of Rogers's theory of personality.

- 2) Explain the importance of self-concept in Rogers's theory of personality.

- 3) What do you mean by congruence and incongruence of self. What role does it play in the development of personality?

- 4) Discuss the development of personality from Rogers's phenomenological point of view.

4.5 LET US SUM UP

The central theme in humanistic and self theories is the drive towards self-actualisation, to realise one's full potential. Other themes include personal growth, openness to experience, living in the present, personal responsibility, and inherent goodness of people.

For the humanists, the unit of analysis is “perceived reality”.

Probably the best known proponent of this approach is Abraham Maslow. Maslow proposes a model of how a happy, healthy, well-functioning person behaves, which is based on concrete observations of real people, rather than on formulating ideal requirements. Moreover Maslow proposes a simple and intuitively appealing theory of motivation, which explains where such a “self-actualising” personality comes from. Maslow's theory can be explained in terms of Hierarchy of needs, deficiency needs, growth needs and characteristics of self-actualising persons.

Maslow proposed a theory of human motivation based on hierarchy of needs. The lower a need in the hierarchy the more prepotent or dominating that need is. In other words, when several needs are active, the lowest need will be most compelling. The higher order need emerge only when the lower level needs are satisfied.

The first four levels are considered *deficiency* or *deprivation needs* (“D-needs”) in that their lack of satisfaction causes a deficiency that motivates people to meet these needs.

Physiological needs, the lowest level on the hierarchy, include necessities such as air, food, and water. These tend to be satisfied for most people, but they become predominant when unmet.

During emergencies, *safety needs* such as health and security rise to the forefront. Once these two levels are met, *belongingness needs*, such as obtaining love and intimate relationships or close friendships, become important.

The next level, *esteem needs*, include the need for recognition from others, confidence, achievement, and self-esteem.

The highest level is *self-actualisation*, or the self-fulfillment. Behaviour in this case is not driven or motivated by deficiencies but rather one's desire for personal growth and the need to become all the things that a person is capable of becoming.

In order to study the characteristics self-actualisers of Maslow studied a group of people, whom he felt clearly met the standard of self-actualisation. Using a qualitative method called biographical analysis; he developed a list of qualities that seemed characteristic of the self-actualisers, as opposed to the great mass of us.

Rogers's theory, also known as self-theory, is basically phenomenological, in that it placed a strong emphasis on the experience of the person, their feelings, their values, and all that is summed up by the expression “inner life”. His theory grew out of his own experience in working with individual in the therapeutic relationship

In terms of his theory, there are two fundamental ideas which are particularly worth noting. First, Rogers talked about healthy development in terms of how the individual perceived their own being. A healthy individual will tend to see *congruence* between their sense of who they are (*self*) and who they feel they should be (*ideal self*). While no one tends to experience perfect congruence at all times, the relative degree of congruence is an indicator of health.

The second fundamental idea is Rogers's concept of the *conditions for healthy growth*, and the role of a therapist in fostering healthy growth. Rogers's theory is explained under the three headings: enduring aspects of personality, self-actualisation and development of self.

Organism and the self are of the fundamental importance in Rogers's theory. According to Rogers the organism is the locus of all experience, including everything potentially available to awareness, at any given moment. The totality of experience constitutes the phenomenal field.

The phenomenal field is the individual's frame of reference that can only be known to the person. Rogers emphasised that the individual's way of behaving depends upon the phenomenal field (subjective reality) and not upon the stimulating conditions (external reality). Rogers developed one of the most systematic models of self, in relation to the personality-functioning. The self or self-concept is one of the central concepts in his theory. Self is one's picture of him or hers. Rogers further distinguishes two aspects or subsystems of self: The real self and the ideal self. The real self is the "you" that, if all goes well, you will become, while the ideal self is what the person would like to be.

Thus, Rogers's personality theory distinguishes between two personalities. The real self, which is created and developed through the actualising tendency and the ideal-self, which is created through the demands of society. Rogers, unlike Freud, Sullivan, and Erikson, did not try to propound a stage theory of personality development. He emphasised the importance of congruence between the self of the person and his experiences in the development of personality. Adjustment and psychological health have also been explained in terms of realistic self-concept that is congruent with self.

4.6 UNIT END QUESTIONS

- 1) Discuss the characteristic features of Humanistic approach to personality.
- 3) What are the main features of Maslow's theory that makes it applicable in organisation?
- 3) Critically evaluate the main tenets of Maslow's theory of personality.
- 4) What do you mean by need hierarchy?
- 5) Discuss the importance of deficiency needs and growth needs in the development of personality
- 6) What are the main characteristics of self-actualising person? Discuss it in detail.
- 7) On what ground does Maslow's theory differ from Rogers's theory of personality?

- 8) Critically evaluate Rogers's theory of personality.
- 9) Discuss the importance of self in Rogers's theory of personality.
- 10) In the light of Roger's theory explain the development of personality
- 11) What do you mean by phenomenal field? Discuss its importance in the light of Rogers's theory.

4.7 GLOSSARY

Client-centered therapy	: The therapeutic approach developed by Carl Rogers in which therapist helps clients to clarify their true feelings and come to value who they are.
Deficiency needs	: In Maslow's Need hierarchy model, the first four levels of need- physiological, safety, belongingness, and esteem- are referred as deficit needs.
Growth needs	: In Maslow's Need hierarchy model, the fifth level need, i.e. self-actualisation is called growth needs.
Humanistic psychology	: An approach to understand personality that emphasises self-fulfillment and growth as the prime motivators of behaviour.
Ideal self	: In Rogerian theory, the self-concept an individual would like to have.
Self-actualisation	: According to Maslow's view, the highest motive of human behaviour, the motive to realise oneself fully as a person.
Self-concept	: In Rogerian theory, the attitudes and beliefs and individual has about himself.

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UNIT 1 GORDON ALLPORT: A DISPOSITIONAL THEORY OF PERSONALITY

Structure

- 1.0 Introduction
- 1.1 Objectives
- 1.2 Definition of Personality
- 1.3 Concept of Trait and Personal Dispositions
- 1.4 Types of Traits
 - 1.4.1 Common Traits versus Individual Traits
- 1.5 The Proprium : Development of Selfhood
 - 1.5.1 The Proprium Defined
- 1.6 Functional Autonomy
 - 1.6.1 Types of Functional Autonomy
- 1.7 The Mature Personality
- 1.8 Application: The Study of Values
- 1.9 Let Us Sum Up
- 1.10 Unit End Questions
- 1.11 Glossary
- 1.12 Suggested Readings and References

1.0 INTRODUCTION

According to Allport “The basic principle of behaviour is its continuous flow”[1961,p.33]. Allport’s major personality concepts have to do with motivation-with what makes a person ‘go’. At the same time a person’ “stream of activity” has both a ‘variable portion ‘ and a ‘constant portion’. Allport describes his constant portion with his concept of *trait*, and the variable portion with what he calls *functional autonomy*, or the tendency for a behaviour to continue to be performed for reasons that differ from the reasons that originally motivated it. Both –the trait and functional autonomy –are motivational; many traits have motive power, and functional autonomy explains adult motivation. Whether traits or functional autonomy, Allport talks about *dynamics* of personality.

1.1 OBJECTIVES

On completion of this unit, you will be able to:

- Define Personality in terms of Allport’s approach;
- Explain the various traits that contribute to personality;
- Enumerate the different traits and differentiate between the various traits;
- Define functional autonomy of motives; and
- Analyse various factors contributing to mature personality.

1.2 DEFINITION OF PERSONALITY

Personality is the dynamic organisation within the individual of those psychophysical systems that determine his unique adjustment to his environment.[ALLPORT,1937,P.48]

The term *dynamic organisation* refers to important points: Not only is personality constantly developing and changing, but there is within the person some kind of central organisation that holds the components of personality together and relates them to each other.

The term *psychophysical systems* implies that person is not just a hypothetical construct formed by the observer but a real phenomenon composed of mind and body elements fused into 'a personality unity'[Allport,1937,p.48].

Characteristics in Allport's definition signifies the uniqueness of the single person. No two people are alike in this personological systems. Finally, *behaviour and thought* means everything a person does. Personality expresses itself in some way in virtually all observable human actions.

While defining personality, Allport clearly makes a distinction between *character* and *temperament*. Character means some code of behaviour in terms of which people or their acts are evaluated e.g. a person may be described as having a 'good' or 'bad' character. Temperament refers to those dispositions that are closely linked to biological or physiological determinants. Here, heredity plays an important role, which is the raw material, along with intelligence and physique, out of which personality is made.

1.3 CONCEPT OF TRAIT AND PERSONAL DISPOSITIONS

Allport defines trait as a neuro psychic structure having the capacity to render many stimuli functionally equivalent, and to initiate and guide equivalent (meaningfully consistent) forms of adaptive and expressive behaviour.[Allport, 1961,p.347]

In simpler terms, a trait is a predisposition to act in the same way in a wide range of situations. For example, if a person is basically shy, s/he will tend to be quiet and reserved in many different situations, that is sitting in a class room, eating at the cafeteria, etc.

Traits are psychological entities that render many a stimuli as well as many responses functionally equivalent. In other words, many stimuli may evoke the same response, or many responses (feelings, perceptions, interpretations, actions) have the same functional meaning in terms of the trait.

Allport [1966] published an article entitled "Traits Revisited" in which he proposed eight basic defining characteristics of trait. They are as follows:

- 1) *A trait has more than nominal existence.* Personality traits are a very real and vital part of everyone's existence. Everyone possesses certain 'generalised action tendencies'. For example, aggressiveness, honesty, etc. These personal

characteristics are real and actually exist inside people. To cite an example from real life situation, imagine a person always telling the truth even at the cost of apprehending one's own intimate friend.

- 2) *A trait is more generalised than a habit.* Traits account for the relatively permanent and general features of our behaviour. While habits refer to more specific tendencies and are less generalised in terms of the situations which may arouse them or the responses which they evoke. For example a child may brush his teeth twice daily. This is a habit. But over the years the child may learn to brush the hair, wash and iron clothes, clean the room and many such activities which are all learned over a period of time and not necessarily habits. All these habits woven together may form the trait of personal cleanliness.
- 3) *A trait is dynamic or at least determinative in behaviour.* Traits do not lie dormant waiting to be aroused by external stimuli. Traits motivate people to engage in behaviours that are conducive to expressing their traits. To give an example, a student with high sociable trait does not just sit around and wait to attend parties, but actively seeks out parties so that the sociability trait can be expressed.. Thus, traits guide and direct a person's actions.
- 4) *A trait's existence may be established empirically.* Traits cannot be observed directly, but it is possible to verify their existence. To give an example, repeated actions of the subject, case histories or biographies, or statistical techniques that determine the degree of coherence among separate responses.
- 5) *A trait is only relatively independent of other traits.* No trait is independent of the other. They overlap. There is no rigid boundary separating one trait from another. The personality is comprised of a network of overlapping traits only *relatively* independent of one another.
- 6) *A trait is not synonymous with moral or social judgement.* Personality is important, not character. Many traits like loyalty, greed, etc. are bound by social demands and socio cultural factors.
- 7) *A trait may be viewed in light of either the personality that contains it or its distribution in the population at large.* To give an example, take for instance, the trait of shyness which has both unique and universal aspects. It is unique for the person because it influences a person's life, while as the trait can be studied universally by constructing a reliable and valid "shyness scale" and determine how people differ on it.
- 8) Acts or even habits that are inconsistent with a trait are not proof of the nonexistence of the trait.

Not everyone shows the same degree of integration with respect to a given trait. Also, the same person may possess contradictory traits. Lastly, there are instances where social situations, rather than personality traits are the prime movers of behaviour.

Self Assessment Questions

- 1) Define Personality in terms of Allport's theory.

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2) What do you understand by “traits”?

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3) What are the basic characteristics of traits?

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1.4 TYPES OF TRAITS

Traits are determining tendencies or predispositions to respond consistently over time and across situations. Allport proposed that traits may be classified into a three-fold and somewhat overlapping category system according to the degree to which they pervade and influence individual behaviour.

- 1) **Cardinal Trait:** If a trait is extremely pervasive, that is, if almost all of a person's activities can be traced to its influence, it is a cardinal trait. The meaning may be grasped by considering many trait adjectives derived from history and fictional characters. To give an example when someone is being referred to as being a Gandhian, the cardinal disposition of being 'non-violent' is being inferred.
- 2) **Central Trait:** Less pervasive but still quite generalised disposition of the individual. These are also called the building blocks of personality. To cite an example, a person being outgoing, sociable, etc. In other words, central traits are those tendencies that a person often expresses, which people around the person can readily discern.
- 3) **Secondary Trait:** Dispositions which are less conspicuous, less generalised, less consistent and less relevant as compared to cardinal or central traits. These are called secondary traits. To give an example, food preferences of an individual. However it must be remembered that to know of the secondary traits of a person, the person must be known quite intimately in order to discern the secondary traits.

1.4.1 Common Traits versus Individual Traits

Allport [1937] also distinguished between *common* traits and *individual* traits. The former (also called dimensional or nomothetic traits) includes any generalised disposition to which most people within a given culture can be reasonably compared. For example, social attitude, anxiety, value, and the like are generalised disposition and the majority of people within the particular culture could be measurably compared with one another on those common traits and dimensions.

Traits never occur in any two people in exactly the same way.

Thus, those characteristics peculiar to the individual which do not permit comparisons among individual are referred to as individual traits. These are also called as personal dispositions or morphological traits and these traits always operate in unique ways within each person, and this category of traits most accurately pinpoints the personality structure of any given individual, that is the organised focus of his life. The true personality surfaces only when the individual traits are examined which can be obtained from such resources as a persons' case history, diary, letters, and other such documents.

Self Assessment Questions

1) What are the various types of traits?

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2) Define common traits.

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3) Define individual traits.

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4) How does one differentiate between common and individual traits?

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1.5 THE PROPIUM: DEVELOPMENT OF SELFHOOD

One thing that motivates human beings is the tendency to satisfy biological survival needs, which Allport referred to as opportunistic functioning. He noted that opportunistic functioning can be characterised as reactive, past-oriented, and biological.

Allport also felt that opportunistic functioning was relatively unimportant for understanding most of human behaviour, as he was of the view that most behaviours of individuals is motivated by something very different. This different aspect is the one that helps express one's unique self. This type of something motivating the functioning of a person in terms of expressing of the self was termed by Allport as propriate functioning. Allport also said that most of what persons do in life are a matter of being who the persons are, what are their individual qualities, etc. Propriate functioning can be characterised as proactive, future-oriented, and psychological.

Propriate comes from the word 'proprium', which is Allport's name for that essential concept, the self. He had reviewed hundreds of definitions for that concept and came to feel that, in order to be more scientific, it would be necessary to dispense with the common word self and substitute something else. However despite the word proprium was considered a good substitute, this term never could actually substitute self and 'self' continue to be used to represent the individual's unique features that motivate the person's behaviour.

To get an intuitive feel for what propriate functioning means, think of the last time you wanted to do something or become something because you really felt like doing or becoming that something that would be expressive of the things about yourself that you believe to be most important. Remember the last time you did something to express your self, the last time you told yourself, "that's really me!" Doing things in keeping with what you really are, that's propriate functioning.

1.5.1 The Proprium Defined

Putting so much emphasis on the self or proprium, Allport wanted to define it as carefully as possible. He considered proprium from two basic view points, viz., phenomenological and functional.

Phenomenological means the self is considered in terms of what it experiences. Allport suggested that the self is composed of all the aspects of a person experiencing, that is what the person sees as most essential or important and not incidental or accidental. It also means warm as against being cold in terms of emotions, and central which means that the self is the central part and not peripheral of the self.

Allport considered the self as having seven functions, as given below:

- 1) Sense of body
- 2) Self-identity
- 3) Self-esteem

- 4) Self-extension
- 5) Self-image
- 6) Rational coping
- 7) Propriate striving

Table below shows the propriate functions of personality in order of their sequential appearance in the developing individual.

Table: Developmental Stages of the Proprium by Allport

Stage	Aspects of personality	Definition
1	Sense of bodily self	Awareness of bodily sensations. First aspect of proprium that evolves during the first year of life. Infants become aware of sensations coming from muscles, tendons, and joints etc. These recurrent sensations constitute the bodily self.
2	Sense of Identity	Continuity of self despite changes taking place. Second aspects of proprium evolves through language, the child recognises him/herself as a distinct and constant point of reference. By learning one's name, clothing, toys etc. helps in strengthening the sense of identity.
3.	Sense of self esteem	Pride in one's accomplishments. Self-esteem is the feeling of pride that results when a person accomplishes things on one's own. This aspect of proprium emerges during the third year of life. It depends on the child's success in mastering tasks and his urge to explore and manipulate the environment.
4.	Sense of self extension	Self comes to include relevant aspects of the social and physical environment. This evolves during 4 to 6 years of age, when children realise that their physical bodies also belongs to certain aspects of their environment, including people. Children learn the meaning of "mine"
5.	Self Image	Aspirations of the person begins to reflect the goals and expectations of significant others. It evolves around 5 or 6 years. It is the time the child realises what is expected of him/her by significant others. The child begins to distinguish between the 'good me' and the 'bad me'

6.	Sense of self as rational coper	Abstract reasoning and logic applied to solving everyday problems. This occurs between 6 and 12 years of age, when the child realises that s/he has the rational capacity to find solutions to life's problems and thereby cope effectively with reality demands. Reflective and formal thinking appears
7.	Propriate striving	Unified sense of self and planning for long range goals. Allport [1961] believed that the core problem of an adolescent is the selection of career and other life goals. Pursuing long range goals, having a sense of directedness and intentionality in striving for defined objectives, imparting to life a sense of purpose etc. are part of and essence of propriate striving. Realisation of propriate striving requires a unified sense of selfhood. And hence, this occurs only in adulthood, when all aspects of self are consolidated

Self Assessment Questions

- 1) Define Proprium and describe the same.

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- 2) What are the various stages of development of the proprium?

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- 3) What is meant by propriate functioning?

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4) How is propiate functioning different from propiate striving? Explain

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5) What are the 7 functions of self? Describe with examples

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1.6 FUNCTIONAL AUTONOMY

Functional autonomy of motives

Allport didn't believe in looking too much into a person's past in order to understand his present. This belief is most strongly evident in the concept of functional autonomy. This concept states that the motives for a certain behaviour today are independent (autonomous) of their origins. For instance a person might have wanted to become an Information Technology specialist, because of the person getting first rank and getting prizes in it. However as of today the motive is different. That is, the person is n IT specialist because that itself is giving the person all that needs to be achieved. To take another example, a person might have developed a taste for pizzas, due to some reason, but that is actually not important, what is important is that the person likes pizzas as of today and that is what the person is now and that matters.

Allport thus did not believe in looking too much into a person's past in order to understand the present. This perhaps led to the term functional autonomy in which a person's motives today are independent (autonomous) of their origins.

The concept of *functional autonomy* of motives provides the necessary base for a theory of motivation. It simply means that adult motives are not related to past motives. The past is past, there are no strings attached. In other words, the reasons why an adult now engages in some behaviour are independent of whatever reasons that might have originally caused her/him to engage in that behaviour.

Allport suggested that much of adult behaviour is caused by functionally autonomous motives. For example, he pointed to the case of a young student who first undertakes a field study in college because it is required, because it pleases his parents, or because it comes at a convenient hour. As he starts working he finds himself absorbed in the topic, perhaps for life. The original motives with which he started on the project is no more present. What was a means to an end becomes an end itself.[1961,p.235]

1.6.1 Types of Functional Autonomy

Allport [1961] differentiated between two types of functional autonomy, viz., (i) preservative functional autonomy (ii) Propriate functional autonomy.

The first, preservative *functional autonomy* refers to feedback mechanisms in the nervous system that are governed by simple neurological principles. These mechanisms become neurologically self-maintaining over time and help to keep the organism on track. E.g. eating and going to bed at the same time each day. The main feature is repetitious activity.

The second, *propriate functional autonomy* refers to the acquired interests, values, attitudes and intentions of the person. It is the master system of motivation that imparts consistency to the person's striving for a congruent self image and a higher level of maturity and growth. People may not be constantly rewarded to sustain their efforts. Thus, it represents the striving for values and goals, and the sense of responsibility that people take for their lives.

Self Assessment Questions

- 1) Define functional autonomy of motives and elucidate the concept

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- 2) Discuss the different types of functional autonomy and highlight the differences.

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1.7 THE MATURE PERSONALITY

Allport [1961] believed that the emergence of personal maturity is a continuous and lifelong process of *becoming*. The behaviour of a mature person is functionally autonomous and is motivated by conscious processes. While the behaviour of immature persons is dominated by unconscious motives stemming from childhood experiences, Allport concluded that the psychologically mature adult is characterised by six attributes, namely

- 1) Has a widely extended sense of self
- 2) Has a capacity for warm social interactions
- 3) Demonstrates emotional security and self acceptance

- 4) Demonstrates realistic perception, skills and assignments
- 5) Demonstrates self insight and humour
- 6) Has a unifying philosophy of life.

Each of these are explained in detail in the following paragraphs:

- 1) *The mature person has a widely extended sense of self:* Truly mature persons can get 'outside' of themselves. They actively participate in work, family and social relationships, hobbies, political and religious issues, or whatever else they experience as valuable.
- 2) *The mature person has a capacity for warm social interactions:* There are two kinds of interpersonal warmth, that is, intimacy and compassion. The intimate aspect of warmth is seen in a person's capacity to show deep love for family and close friends. Compassion is reflected in a person's ability to tolerate differences (concerning values or attitudes) between the self and others, which allows the person to show profound respect and appreciation for the human condition and a sense of kinship with all people.
- 3) *The mature person demonstrates emotional security and self-acceptance:* Mature adults have a positive image of themselves and are thus able to tolerate frustrating or irritating events as well as their shortcomings without becoming inwardly hostile. They also deal with their emotions, like, depression, anger, guilt, in such a way that they do not interfere with the well-being of others.
- 4) *The mature person demonstrates realistic perception, skills, and assignments:* Healthy people see things as they are, not as they wish them to be. They are in direct contact with the reality. They do not distort it perceptually to fit their needs and fantasies. Healthy people possess appropriate skills for their work, provisionally setting aside personal desires and impulses while task takes a priority.
- 5) *The mature person demonstrates self-insight and humour:* Mature adults have an accurate picture of their own strengths and weaknesses. Humour is an important aspect in self insight because it prevents unnecessary self glorification and just plain phoniness. Humour is the ability to laugh at the things one cherishes (including oneself) and still cherish them.
- 6) *The mature person has a unifying philosophy of life:* Mature person can "put it all together", with a clear, consistent, and systematic way of seeing meaning in their lives. A person needs to have a value system that will present him a dominant goal or theme that makes his life meaningful. Different people may develop different central values around which their lives will revolve. A mature person has a set of deeply held values which serve as a unifying foundation of his/her life. A unifying philosophy of life therefore provides a kind of overriding value orientation that gives meaning and significance to everything the person does.

1.8 APPLICATION: THE STUDY OF VALUES

The unifying philosophy of a mature person is founded upon *values*, that is, basic convictions about what is and is not of real importance in life. Believing that a person's efforts to find order and meaning in life are governed by values,

Allport identified and measured basic value dimensions. He helped to develop a personality test, the *Study of Values*. Allport's model is based on the work of Eduard Spranger, a European psychologist.

In his book *Types of Men*, Spranger outlined six major value types. These values are found in varying degrees in all people. People construct the unity of their lives around them (Allport, 1961). Thus, no person falls exclusively under any one value category. Rather, different value combinations are more or less salient in the lives of different people.

For Allport, these values are best described as deep level traits. They are described as:

- i) The Theoretical
- ii) The economic
- iii) The aesthetic
- iv) The social
- v) The political
- vi) The religious.

Let us consider each of these in some detail

- i) **The Theoretical:** The person is primarily concerned with the discovery of *truth*. Such a person is characterised by a rational, critical, and empirical approach to life. The person is highly intellectual and tends to pursue a career in science or philosophy.
- ii) **The Economic:** The economic person places highest value on whatever is *useful or pragmatic*. Such a person is highly 'practical' and is keenly interested in making money.
- iii) **The Aesthetic:** This person places the highest value on *form and harmony*. Every single experience is given importance from the point of view of grace, symmetry, or fitness.
- iv) **The Social:** The highest value of the social type is *love of people*. Such a person is likely to view the theoretical, economic, and aesthetic attitudes as cold and inhuman, and thus would regard love as the only suitable form of relationship.
- v) **The Political:** The main interest of the political person is *power*. Such people look out for personal power, influence, and renowned above all else.
- vi) **The Religious:** This person is mainly concerned with understanding the world as a *unified whole*. The religious person seeks unity and higher meaning in the cosmos.

Allport assessed individual differences in the relative strength of these six values by means of the *Study of Values* scale. Developed and standardised with college students, the test consists of 45 questions and requires 20 minutes to complete. The reliability and validity data support the utility of the test. Average scores on the six values differ in the expected directions for different occupational groups, as for example, in the case of business students they score poorly on the aesthetic value, and theology students score poorly on the religious value. (Allport et al., 1960). The test reflects Allport's belief that values are an essential part of an individual's personality.

1.9 LET US SUM UP

Gordon Allport regarded the explanation of an individual's uniqueness as the paramount goal of psychology. He viewed personality as the dynamic organisation of those internal psychophysical systems that determine a person's characteristic behaviour and thoughts. He considered trait as the most significant unit of analysis for understanding behaviour.

Traits account for a person's behavioural consistency over time and across situations. They may be classified as cardinal, central, or secondary, according to the degree of pervasiveness within a personality. He also made distinction between common and personal dispositions. The former are generalised traits to which most people within a given culture can be compared, whereas the latter refer to characteristics peculiar to a person which do not permit comparisons with others.

The overall construct that unifies traits and provides direction for the person's life is termed the proprium, or self as known, that contributes to an inward sense of unity. Another concept is of functional autonomy. This principle asserts that adult motives are not related to the earlier experiences in which they originally originated. There are two types of functional autonomies, preservative functional autonomy (feedback mechanisms in the nervous system) and propiary functional autonomy (the person's acquired interests, values, attitudes, and intentions). The latter allows for the development of the truly mature person.

1.10 UNIT END QUESTIONS

- 1) How important is Allport's concept of "proprium" in describing the total personality?
- 2) What do you think of Allport's concept of "functional autonomy?"
- 3) How well do Allport's six characteristics of a mature personality fit your own idea of what constitutes a healthy personality?
- 4) What are the various values put forward by Allport?

1.11 GLOSSARY

Bodily self	:	That aspect of the proprium based on the person's perception of his /her body. Allport considered it to be a lifelong anchor of self-awareness.
Cardinal disposition	:	A characteristic so pervasive that virtually all a person's activities can be traced to its influence.
Central disposition	:	A characteristic that influences the person's behaviour in a variety of settings ; central traits are the "building blocks " of personality structure.
Character	:	Term used to refer a moral standard or value system against which a person's actions are evaluated.
Common trait	:	Any generalised disposition against which most people within a given culture can reasonably be compared(nomothetic trait).

Dispositional perspective:	An approach to personality emphasising the enduring qualities or traits that reside within the person and that render the person's behaviour consistent overtime and across situations.
Functional autonomy :	Process whereby a given form of behaviour becomes an end or goal in itself despite the fact that it may originally have been adopted for another reason. What was formerly a means to an end becomes an end itself.
Individual trait :	A trait unique to the individual(personal disposition).
Propriate striving :	The person's motivation to enhance self through the pursuit of important, long-range goals. Such motivation will increase the the level of tension.
Proprium :	All aspects of a person that make him unique. It represents creative, forward moving and positive quality of human nature.
Psychophysical system :	An important aspect of Allport's definition which suggests that both mental and physical factors must be considered when we seek to understand human functioning.
Secondary disposition:	A trait that has little or no influence on behaviour, as for example, a specific food preference.
Self as a rational copper:	A person's realisation that s/he can cope effectively wiyh reality demands and achieve personal goals.
Self esteem :	The favourableness of a person's self-image.
Self extension :	The person's feelings about his /her material possessions.
Self identity :	The person's recognition of self as a distinct and constant point of referencerelative to others.
Self image :	The diversitry of roles a person plays in order to gain the approval of others and to manage their impressions of who and what the person is.
Self objectification :	The ability to view oneself objectively and to recognise one's strength and weaknesses.

1.12 SUGGESTED READINGS AND REFERENCES

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UNIT 2 RAYMOND CATTELL: A TRAIT THEORY OF PERSONALITY

Structure

- 2.0 Introduction
- 2.1 Objectives
- 2.2 Cattell's Trait Theory of Personality
 - 2.2.1 The Formula for Personality
- 2.3 Categories of Traits
- 2.4 Role of Herdity and Environment
- 2.5 Constitutional versus Environmental –Mold Traits
- 2.6 Ability, Temperament and Dynamic Traits
- 2.7 Common versus Unique Traits
- 2.8 Let Us Sum Up
- 2.9 Unit End Questions
- 2.10 Glossary
- 2.11 Suggested Readings and References

2.0 INTRODUCTION

Cattell's theory seeks to explain the complicated transactions between the personality system and the more inclusive sociocultural matrix of the functioning organism. He suggested that an adequate theory of personality must take into account the multiple traits that comprise the personality, the extent to which these traits are genetically and environmentally determined, and the ways in which genetic and environmental factors interact to influence behaviour. He is also of the opinion that an appropriate theory of personality must take into account the multiple traits that comprise the personality, the extent to which these traits are genetically and environmentally determined, and the ways in which genetic and environmental factors interact to influence behaviour. In this unit we will be studying the details regarding Cattell's Trait theory of personality, its definitions, the dynamics underlying the theory etc.

2.1 OBJECTIVES

After completion of this unit, you will be able to:

- Define Cattell's theory of personality;
- Describe the characteristic features related to trait theory;
- Explain the various methods and measurement instruments of trait;
- List out the categories of traits; and
- Explain the functions of traits and their influence on personality.

2.2 CATTELL'S TRAIT THEORY OF PERSONALITY

Raymond Cattell was born in 1905 and died in 1998. He was educated in Britain and he obtained his doctorate from University of London and after which he worked as director, child guidance clinic for 5 years. He came to the US to work with E.L.Thorndike and developed officer selection methods. He established an Institute for Personality and Ability testing. He taught at University of Illinois for 30 years and more and went to Hawaii in 1978 and until death he was teaching in the University of Hawaii.

Cattell thought that clinicians observations were not a scientific basis for understanding or classifying personality. He used inductive method of scientific inquiry to develop his theory of personality. That is, he gathered large amount of data and used factor analysis on the data looking for clusters.

For Cattell personality was that which permitted a prediction of what a person will do in a given situation. The underlying basic factors of a person's personalities was termed by him as source traits. He used factor analysis and found common clusters of surface traits. These clusters were termed by Cattell as Source traits. He gathered data about the individual from the liferecord etc., took self reports and used the Questionnaire data and used tests and obtained test results which all put together with source traits gave the personality of an individual.

Cattell has identified 35 primary traits of which 23 characterised normal individuals and 12 characterised abnormal individuals. He developed a scale called 16 PF which was designed to assess 16 different source traits associated with normal behaviour.

Cattell said that humans are innately driven by ergs, which means goals were created because of hunger, curiosity, anger, fear, or other basic motivations which are found in both humans and primates.

Cattell distinguished two types of intelligence viz., (i) Fluid intelligence (ii) Crystallised intelligence. According to him, Fluid intelligence allows the persons to learn new things regardless of past experience, whereas the crystallized intelligence is the ability to solve problems based upon previous experience. Cattell believed that intelligence was primarily an inherited trait.

Cattell was of the view that personality has to be considered in terms of not only traits but also various other variables including attitudes. Cattell defined attitude as the desire to act in a specific way in response to a specific situation. Attitudes are interconnected within the Dynamic lattice, that is dynamic lattice is Cattell's attempt to display graphically his theoretical analysis of the relationship between the mind's instinctive driving forces and their overlying semantic and attitudinal superstructure. The specific attitudinal connections within the dynamic lattice are controlled by susidiation chains, that is some attitudes are subordinate to other attitudes. The subsidisation chain helps determine when specific attitude will produce a specific behaviour.

Environmental factors were considered essential by Cattell to determine personality and behaviour.

Ergs are goals created because of hunger, thirst etc. The organism is motivated to get food when hungry. These are called ergs.

Socially created goals are called socially shaped ergs and Cattell gave it the term socially shaped ergic manifolds. In short form it was called SEM. Cattell used SEM to help explain the contribution of the environment to human behaviour.

SEM's are socially acquired and can satisfy several ergs at one time. Because SEMs are socially acquired, they vary in number and type by culture.

SEM's get their energy from the ERG's.

Humans are innately driven by *ergs*, which are goals created by curiosity, anger, hunger, fear, and many other basic motivations.

Through research Cattell developed list of ergs which are for instance, Food-Seeking, Mating, Gregariousness, Parental Protectiveness, Exploration, Safety, Self-Assertion, Pugnacity, Narcissistic Sex, and Acquisitiveness.

Some of the major socially shaped ergic models are profession, family and home, spouse, religion. Together with attitudes, ERHGs and SEMs interact to produce behaviour.

According to Cattell, if you can systematically identify their attitudes, ERG's and SEM's, you should then be able to reliably predict future behaviour.

Cattell's trait theory of personality attempts to explain the interaction between the genetic and personality systems and the socio cultural milieu within which the organism is functioning. It delves deep into the complicated transactions between the personality system and the more inclusive sociocultural matrix of the functioning organism. According to him these traits are genetically and environmentally determined, and the ways in which genetic and environmental factors interact decide the behaviour of the individual. Cattell opines that an appropriate theory of personality must take into account the multiple traits that comprise the personality. The theory should be able to indicate the ways in which genetic and environmental factors interact to influence behaviour. He believes that an appropriate theory of personality functioning and growth must be based on systematic research methods and precise measurements. Multivariate statistics and factor analysis are his preferred methods of personality study.

Self Assessment Questions

1) Describe in detail Cattell's trait theory of personality.

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2) What are the two types of Intelligence as put forward by Cattell?

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3) Define and describe ERGs and SEMs

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4) How does Cattell use ERGs and SEMs in his theory of Personality?

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2.2.1 The Formula for Personality

According to Cattell [1965], personality is that which permits us to predict what a person will do in a given situation. With the help of mathematical analysis of personality, he suggests that the prediction of behaviour can be made by a *specification equation*. The formula used by Cattell to predict behaviour with any degree of accuracy is given below:

$$R = f(S, P)$$

Where R refers to the nature of a person's specific response, f refers to the unspecified function, S refers to the stimulus situation at a given moment in time and P refers to the Personality structure.

To be more specific, this formula signifies that the nature of a person's specific response(R), meaning what the person does or thinks or verbalises, is some unspecified function(f) of the stimulus situation(S) at a given moment in time and also of the individual's personality structure(P).

The specification equation shows that the person's specific response to any given situation is a function of all the combined traits relevant to that situation. Here each trait is interacting with situational factors that may affect it.

Cattell also accepts that it is difficult to predict a person's behaviour in a given situation. In order to increase predictive accuracy, the personality theorist must

consider not only what traits a person possesses but also the many nontrait variables such as for example, the person's moods and particular social roles called for in the situation and related aspects.

It is also necessary to weigh each trait according to its relevance to the situation in question. For example, if the person were in emotionally arousing situation, the trait of anxiety would be assigned a high weight in predicting the person's response. Thus, the equation is an oversimplification of Cattell's trait theory, yet, this general formula conveys Cattell's strong belief that human behaviour is determined and can be predicted.

2.3 CATEGORIES OF TRAITS

According to Cattell, behaviour is determined by the interaction of traits and situational variables, but his major organising concept of personality resides in his descriptions of the various kinds of traits he has identified. Traits are relatively permanent and pervasive tendencies to respond with consistency from one situation to another and from one time to another. Traits are hypothetical mental structures inferred from behaviour which predispose the person to behave uniformly across various circumstances and across time. Traits reflect the person's stable and predictable characteristics and are by far the most important of Cattell's concepts.

Cattell (1965,1978) relies heavily on factor analysis to investigate the structural elements of personality. He concludes that traits can be classified in several ways (Cattell also uses the term *factors*) such as (i) surface traits (ii) source traits (iii) constitutional traits (iv) Environmental mold traits (v) ability trait (vi) temperament (vii) dynamic traits (viii) common traits (ix) Unique traits. Let us take up these traits and see how they function.

- i) **Surface Traits versus Source Traits.** A *surface trait* is a set of behavioural characteristics that all seem to 'hang' together. For instance, the observed characteristics of inability to concentrate, indecisiveness, restlessness etc., may cluster together to form the surface trait of neuroticism. Here, the trait of neuroticism is observed by a cluster of overt elements that seem to go together. It does not derive from any single factor or element. Surface traits do not have a unitary basis and are not consistent overtime and hence, they are not given much value for behavioural accountability.

On the other hand, *source traits* are the basic, underlying structures which constitute the building blocks of personality. They represent the unitary dimension or factors that ultimately determine the consistencies in each person's observed behaviour. Source traits exist at a "deeper" level of the personality and are the causes of behaviour in diverse domains over an extended period of time.

After extensive factor analytic research, Cattell[1979] concluded that there are approximately 16 source traits that constitute the underlying structure of personality. These were put forward by him as (i) warmth (ii) Reasoning (iii) Emotional stability (iv) Dominance (v) Liveliness (vi) Rule Consciousness (vii) social boldness (viii) Sensitivity (ix) vigilance (x) Abstractness (xi) Privateness (xii) Apprehension (xiii) Openness to change (xiv) Self reliance (xv) Perfectionism (xvi) Tension.

16 PF (Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire), designed by Cattell consists of the above 16 personality trait factors. It is a self report scale that has proved to be quite useful and popular in both applied and research settings. Cattell considered personality traits to have multi level hierarchical structure. In his research Cattell tried to find out the primary traits of personality and found that these primary traits came together in meaningful groupings and formed broader global traits. These global traits were termed by him as secondary traits.

For example the first global trait he found was the introversion extraversion. It resulted from the natural affinity of five primary traits that defined different reasons for an individual to move toward people and away from people. Cattell stated that there was a natural tendency for these traits to go together in the real world, and these represented important social behavioural domain. The primary traits that constituted the extraversion introversion dimension were :

- **Warmth (Factor A):** the tendency to move toward others seeking closeness and connection because of genuine feelings of caring, sympathy, and concern (versus the tendency to be reserved and detached, and thus be independent and unemotional).
- **Liveliness (Factor F):** the tendency to be high-energy, fun-loving, and carefree, and to spontaneously move towards others in an animated, stimulating manner. Low-scorers tend to be more serious and self-restrained, and to be cautious, unrushed, and judicious.
- **Social Boldness (Factor H):** the tendency to seek social interaction in a confident, fearless manner, enjoying challenges, risks, and being the center of attention. Low-scorers tend to be shy and timid, and to be more modest and risk-avoidant.
- **Forthrightness (Factor N):** the tendency to want to be known by others—to be open, forthright, and genuine in social situations, and thus to be self-revealing and unguarded. Low-scorers tend to be more private and unself-revealing, and to be harder to get to know.
- **Affiliative (Factor Q2):** the tendency to seek companionship and enjoy belonging to and functioning in a group (inclusive, cooperative, good follower, willing to compromise). Low-scorers tend to be more individualistic and self-reliant and to value their autonomy.

In a similar manner, Cattell and his colleagues found that four other primary traits consistently merged to define another global factor called as Receptivity or Openness (versus Tough-Mindedness). This factor was made up of four primary traits that describe different kinds of openness to the world and these were identified as

- Openness to sensitive feelings, emotions, intuition, and aesthetic dimensions (**Sensitivity – Factor I**)
- Openness to abstract, theoretical ideas, conceptual thinking, and imagination (**Abstractedness – Factor M**)
- Openness to free thinking, inquiry, exploration of new approaches, and innovative solutions (**Openness-to-Change – Factor Q1**) and
- Openness to people and their feelings (**Warmth – Factor A**).

Another global factor, **Self-Controlled (or conscientious) versus Unrestrained**, resulted from the four primary factors that came together. These were as given below:

- **Rule-Consciousness (Factor G)** involves adopting and conscientiously following society's accepted standards of behaviour
- **Perfectionism (Factor Q3)** describes a tendency to be self-disciplined, organised, thorough, attentive to detail, and goal-oriented
- **Seriousness (Factor F)** involves a tendency to be cautious, reflective, self-restrained, and deliberate in making decisions; and
- **Groundedness (Factor M)** involves a tendency to stay focused on concrete, pragmatic, realistic solutions.

Because the global factors were developed by factor-analysing the primary traits, the meanings of the global traits were determined by the primary traits which made them up. In addition, the global factors helped in understanding the meaning and function of each of the primary traits. Thus, the two levels of personality are essentially inter-connected and inter-related

Self Assessment Questions

- 1) Define and elucidate $R_s = f(S, P)$.

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- 2) What are the different categories of traits?

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- 3) What is a source trait and a surface trait?

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- 4) Put forward the 16 personality factors. How did Cattell arrive at these traits?

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2.4 ROLE OF HERDITY AND ENVIRONMENT

Cattell has tried to determine the relative contributions of heredity and environment to the development of traits.

He devised a statistical technique for this purpose and called it *multiple abstract variance analysis* (MAVA). This test estimates not only the presence or absence of genetic influence but also the degree to which traits are due to genetic or to environmental influences [Cattell, 1960].

MAVA involves gathering data on the resemblances between identical twins raised in the same family, non-twin siblings raised in the same family, identical twins raised apart, and non-twins siblings raised apart.

Results from MAVA technique (based on personality tests administered to assess a particular trait) suggest that the importance of genetic and environmental influences varies widely from trait to trait.

For example, Cattell's data indicate that about 65 to 70 percent of the variation in scores on measures of intelligence and assertiveness can be accounted for by genetic factors, whereas the genetic influence on traits such as conscientiousness and neuroticism is half that. Cattell estimates that about two-thirds of personality is determined by environmental influences and one-third by heredity.

Along with immediate situational factors, Cattell believes that much of people's behaviour is determined by the groups to which they belong (such as families, peer groups, school, and the like). Just as people can be described in terms of their traits, so can traits be used to describe social groups with which people are associated.

The trait dimensions along which groups can be objectively described are called their *syntality*.

Using factor analysis Cattell [1949] studied the syntality of various religious, school, and peer groups. He also studied several traits that compose the syntality of entire nations (Cattell et al., 1952). The major traits found to identify the syntality of countries included size, morale, affluence, and industriousness.

2.5 CONSTITUTIONAL VERSUS ENVIRONMENTAL – MOLD TRAITS

Source traits can be divided into two subtypes—depending on their origin.

Constitutional traits derive from the biological and physiological conditions of the person. For instance, recovery from cocaine addiction may cause a person to be momentarily irritable, depressed, and anxious. Cattell would suggest that these behaviours result from changes in the person's physiology and thus reflect constitutional source traits.

Environmental-mold traits are determined by influences in the social and physical environment. These traits reflect learned characteristics and styles of behaving and form a pattern that is imprinted on the personality by the individual's environment. Thus, a person who is raised in a rural setting behaves differently from a person, who grows up in an urban area.

2.6 ABILITY, TEMPERAMENT AND DYNAMIC TRAITS

Source traits can further be classified in terms of the modality through which they are expressed.

Ability traits determine the person's skill and effectiveness in pursuing a desired goal. For example, intelligence, musical aptitude.

Temperament traits relate to other emotional and stylistic qualities of behaviour. For example, people may either work quickly or slowly on a task. Cattell considers temperament traits to constitutional source traits that determine a person's emotionality.

Dynamic traits reflect the motivational elements of human behaviour. These are traits that activate and direct the person toward particular goals. Thus, a person may be characterised as ambitious, power-oriented, or interested in acquiring material possessions.

2.7 COMMON VERSUS UNIQUE TRAITS

A *common trait* is one that is shared in varying degrees by all members of the same culture. For example, self-esteem, intelligence, and introversion.

Unique traits are those that are shared by few or no other people. Unique traits are especially observed in the areas of interests and attitudes.

Cattell gives much significance on the use of factor analysis to identify the major traits of personality. Cattell draws his data from three basic sources: life record data(L-data),self-rating questionnaire data(Q-data), and objective test data(OT-data).

L-data, involves the measurement of behaviour in actual, everyday situations such as school performance or interactions with peers.

Q-data, refers to the person's self-ratings about his/her behaviour, feelings or thoughts.

Such information reflects the person's introspections and self-observations (For example, Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire).

Such data is prone to faking.

Finally, *OT-data* are derived from the creation of special situations in which the person's performance on certain tasks may be objectively scored. For example, responding to a Rorschach test. Such data is resistant to faking.

Self Assessment Questions

- 1) Define Ability traits, temperament and dynamic traits .

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2) What do you understand by the terms common and unique traits?

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3) Define and describe L data, Q data and OT data. How are these contributing to personality?

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2.8 LET US SUM UP

Cattell's trait theory views personality as that which permits us to predict what a person will do in a given situation, as expressed in the equation $R=f(S,P)$.

Traits are hypothetical constructs which predispose the person to behave consistently across circumstances and time.

He sees the essence of personality structure as consisting of approximately 16 source trait factors.

Source traits can be divided into constitutional or environmental-mold traits.

Ability, temperament, and dynamic traits represent additional categories of trait classification. He also makes a distinction between common and unique traits.

Cattell uses three types of data to identify source traits:

- i) life records(L-data),
- ii) self-rating questionnaires(Q-data), and
- iii) objective tests(OT-data).

The Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire(16 PF) was devised by Cattell to measure source traits using self-report data.

He also developed a statistical tool called multiple abstract variance analysis to estimate the relative contributions of heredity and environment to a given trait.

He estimates that one-third of personality is determined by genetics and two-thirds by environmental influences.

Finally, he has studied how the syntality or defining characteristics of groups influence personality.

2.9 UNIT END QUESTIONS

- 1) Define Cattell's trait theory of personality
- 2) How do Allport and Cattell differ in their approaches to classify personality traits?
- 3) How does Cattell conceptualise "trait". To what extent, if any, he agrees that traits interact with situations to determine behaviour?
- 4) Give details of 16 PF as put forward by Cattell.
- 5) Define ability, temperament and dynamic traits.
- 6) Describe with suitable examples common and unique traits.
- 7) What is syntality and how does Cattell use the same in explaining group traits?
- 8) What are the various types of traits? Discuss with suitable examples.

2.10 GLOSSARY

Ability trait	: A trait that determines the person's effectiveness and skill in the pursuit of goals.
Constitutional trait	: A source trait that is rooted in biological and physiological condition of the person and very resistant to change.
Dynamic trait	: A trait that activates and directs the person toward particular goals in a given situation.
Environmental mold trait	: A source trait learned through experience with the environment.
Factor analysis	: This is a Statistical procedure used to determine those psychological variables or test responses that cluster together within a matrix of intercorrelations. Factor analysis was used by Cattell and Eysenck to identify the underlying traits of personality structure.
Factor loading	: Correlation between a single item and the factor to which it is being related.
L-data	: Measures of behaviour in everyday life situations or ratings of such behaviour (e.g., interactions with peers).
OT-data	: Measures of a person's performance on tasks that may be objectively scored(e.g., responses to an inkblot).
Q-data	: Personality data obtained from self-report questionnaires(e.g., the 16 PF).
Sixteen Personality Factor Inventory(16PF)	: Self-report test developed by Cattell to measure the 16 source traits of personality.

Source trait	: Underlying structures that constitute the core or basic building blocks of personality, that is source traits are revealed through factor analysis in Cattell's system.
Specification equation	: Formula to indicate that a person's response is a consequence of the stimulus situation at a given moment as well as all the traits relevant to the situation.
Temperament trait	: A constitutional source trait influencing the person's emotional or stylistic quality of behaving.
Trait theory	: Theoretical conception of personality that postulates the existence of underlying dispositions or characteristic that initiate and direct behaviour. Traits are typically inferred from overt behaviour or self-report measures.

2.11 SUGGESTED READINGS AND REFERENCES

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UNIT 3 HANS EYSENCK: A TRAIT-TYPE THEORY OF PERSONALITY

Structure

- 3.0 Introduction
- 3.1 Objectives
- 3.2 Type Theory of Personality
- 3.3 Sheldon's Somatotype Personality
- 3.4 Ayurvedic Body Types (Doshas)
- 3.5 Jungian Personality Types
- 3.6 Type A and Type B Personalities
- 3.7 Block's Personality Types
 - 3.7.1 Strengths and Limitations of Personality Types
- 3.8 Eysenck's Trait Type Theory
 - 3.8.1 Hierarchical Taxonomy
 - 3.8.2 Three Dimensions of Personality
 - 3.8.3 Causal Aspects
- 3.9 Neurophysiological basis of Traits and Types
 - 3.9.1 Extraversion and Cortical Arousal
 - 3.9.2 Neuroticism and Visceral Activation
 - 3.9.3 Psychoticism and Gonadal Hormones
- 3.10 Basic Personality Types
- 3.11 Measurement of Personality
 - 3.11.1 Differences between Introverts and Extraverts
- 3.12 Let Us Sum Up
- 3.13 Unit End Questions
- 3.14 Glossary
- 3.15 Suggested Readings and References

3.0 INTRODUCTION

The type theories are slightly different from the trait theories. While type theories are discontinuous the trait theories are in a continuum. According to Eysenck the goal of psychology is to predict behaviour. In this Eysenck concurs with the view of Cattell who also believed that the goal of psychology is to predict behaviour. Eysenck's approach is more theoretically anchored than is Cattell's. He suggests that not more than three *supertraits* (which he calls *types*) are needed to account for most of human behaviour (Cattell accounts to at least 16 traits or factors of personality). Eysenck places far more importance on genetic factors in personality development than does Cattell, but he also does not completely ignore the environmental or situational influences on personality. The present unit delves deep into the Eysenck's theory of personality. It provides definition, description and the dynamics of the theory.

3.1 OBJECTIVES

After reading this unit, you will be able to:

- Define personality types;
- Differentiate between type and trait theories;
- Explain Eysenck's theory of personality; and
- List out the applications of this theory.

3.2 TYPE THEORY OF PERSONALITY

Personality type theory aims to classify people into distinct categories, that is this type or that. Personality types are synonymous with "personality styles".

Types refer to categories that are distinct and discontinuous. For example, a person may be humorous or drab type. That is the person is either this type or that type. This is important to understand, because here it is either or of a type. There is a discontinuity between the types. The person is humorous or not. On the other hand in the trait theory the traits are continuous in that the trait concerned can be placed in a continuum and can coexist with other traits also. This distinction between type and trait theory is to be kept in mind.

One example of the difference between types and traits, could be considered in terms of the introversion factor. Introversion can be viewed in the personality trait approach as:

- That one can be anywhere on a continuum ranging from introversion to extraversion, with most people clustering in the middle, and fewer people towards the extremes.
- In the case of introversion as a type, the person can be either an introvert or an extravert.

Some of the well known and popular theories of personality type include the following:

- 1) The four humours based personality types
- 2) Sheldon's personality types
- 3) Ayurvedic body types
- 4) Jungian types based on temperament
- 5) Type A and Type B personalities
- 6) J.Block's three personality types.

The above types are being considered below in greater detail.

The Four Humors based personality types

The ancient Greeks between 2000 BC to 0 AD, classified four types of humors in people based on the excess of one of the bodily fluids. Some of the names associated with this view are that of Hippocrates, Galen etc. Each of the humors corresponded to the individual's character. These are presented in the table below:

Table: Types of Character as related to humor and fluids of the body

Character	Humour	Fluid	Corresponding trait in the Big 5
Irritable	Choleric	Yellow bile	Agreeableness
Depressed	Melancholic	Black bile	Neuroticism
Optimistic	Sanguine	Blood	Openness to experience
Calm	Phlegmatic	Phlegm	Neuroticism

From the above it is seen that persons with choleric humor and dominance of yellow bile will have an irritable personality. The person with black bile will be melancholic in humor and the personality associated with this is one depressed personality. Thus humors and bodily fluids made up the type of personality an individual has.

3.3 SHELDON'S SOMATOTYPE PERSONALITY

William Sheldon identified three main types of personality called as somatotype in which he called three types of personality viz., endomorph, ectomorph and mesomorph. Endomorph is also referred to as viscerotonic and refers to a relaxed character, sociable, tolerant, comfort loving, and peaceful. Such person's body build is plump and buxom. The mesomorph type of personality is generally an active type, assertive, vigorous and combative and their body is muscular. The ectomorph is a quiet type, fragile, restrained, non assertive, sensitive with a body that of lean, delicate and poor muscles. No one person is purely of a particular type. There is always a combination of the personality types. Hence Sheldon further classified a person's somatotype and giving a rating of 1 to 7 on each of the three body types. In this scale 1 indicated very low and 7 indicated very high and in between there were more or less of the types of personality identified.

To give examples, one could state that a stereotypical basket ball player will be ectomorph (7), endomorph (1) and mesomorph (1). On the other hand a wrestler like Mohammed Ali will be endomorph (1), mesomorph (7) and ectomorph (1). More specifically a common man walking on the street would be for instance a lanky individual will have ectomorph (5), endomorph (2) and mesomorph (3). An example of a person of average height who is moderately muscular will be endomorphic (4), mesomorphic (5) and ectomorphic (3). An example of a person with a heavy build, will be ectomorphic (3), mesomorphic (3) and endomorphic (5).

Sheldon measured the proportions of hundreds of juvenile delinquent boys and concluded that they were generally mesomorphs.

Body types have been criticised for very weak empirical methodology and are not generally used in psychology. The use of somatotyping is more often seen in alternative therapies and Eastern psychology and spirituality.

Self Assessment Questions

- 1) Discuss the Type theory of personality.

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- 2) What are the characteristic features of type theory of personality? How is it different from trait theory?

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- 3) Elucidate Sheldon's somatotype personality.

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- 4) Give examples of endomorphic, ectomorphic and mesomorphic type personality.

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3.4 AYURVEDIC BODY TYPES (DOSHAS)

In Ayurvedic medicine there are three main metabolic body types called as 'doshas' and these three doshas are 'Vata', 'Pita' and 'Kapha'. These are given in the table below:

Table: Ayurvedic doshas, character and shape.

Ayurvedic Doshas (Sheldon Somatotype)	Character	Shape
Vata (Ectomorph)	Changeability, unpredictability, variability in size, shape, mood, and action. Moody, enthusiastic, imaginative, and impulsive. Quick to grasp ideas and good at initiating things but poor at finishing them. Energy fluctuates, with jagged peaks and valleys, Able, tolerant, comfort-loving, peaceful	Slender with prominent features, joints, and veins, with cool, dry skin. Eat and sleep erratically. Prone to anxiety, insomnia, premenstrual syndrome (in women) , and constipation.

Ayurvedic Doshas (Sheldon Somatotype)	Character	Shape
Pita (Mesomorph)	Relatively predictable. quick, articulate, biting intelligence, and can be critical or passionate with short, explosive tempers. Efficient and moderate in daily habits, eats and sleeps regularly.	Medium build, strength, and endurance. Well proportion and easily maintains a stable weight. Often fair haired, red or blond, ruddy complexion. Tends to sweat heavily and are warm and often thirsty. Prone to acne, ulcers, hemorrhoids, and stomach ailments.
Kapha (Endomorph)	Relaxed. Slow to anger, slow to eat, slow to act. They sleep long and heavily. Tends to procrastinate and be obstinate.	Solid, heavy, and strong, with a tendency to be overweight, slow digestion and somewhat oily hair, and cool, damp, pale skin. Prone to high cholesterol, obesity, allergies, and sinus problems.

Table constructed from information at <http://www.newyorkbodyscan.com/ayurvedic-medicine.html>

3.5 JUNGIAN PERSONALITY TYPES (MYERS-BRIGGS AND THE FOUR TEMPERAMENTS)

Jungian psychological types are probably the most widely used and amongst the best-known in everyday life. Jung viewed the ultimate psychological task as the process of individuation, based on the strengths and limitations of the psychological type.

Myers-Briggs developed the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator, a commercially available questionnaire, which is widely used in business, training, etc. This provides information and exercises for better understanding of one's own personality type and that of others with whom the individual interacts and works.

Underlying all these typologies are four personality functions:

Extroversion (E) — Introversion (I)
Do you recharge your energy via external contact and activity (Extroversion) or spending time in your inner space (Introversion)?

Intuition (N) — Sensing (S)
Do you rely on your inner voice (Intuition) or observation (Sensing)?

Thinking (T) — Feeling (F)
When making decisions, what do you rely most on? Your thoughts or your feelings?

Judgement (J) — Perception (P)
Do you tend to set schedules and organise your life (Judgement), or do you tend to leave the options open and see what happens (Perception)?

Using the letters above, it is possible to have a unique 4 letter code to indicate each of the 16 Jungian personality types, e.g., I am an INTJ. (Introvertive, Intuitive, Thinking and Judging type of personality.)

Keirsey has renamed and reconceptualised the Jungian types, but they relate very closely to the Jungian types. Keirsey refers to “temperaments” rather than personality.

3.6 TYPE A AND TYPE B PERSONALITIES

Meyer Friedman, gave this term. He was a cardiologist and his patients were made to wait in a sitting room where he had put some sofas. He found that interestingly the patients who were very tense and impatient sat at the edge of the sofas and these areas had become worn out. He hypothesised that his patients were driven, impatient people, who sat on the edge of their seats when waiting. He labelled these people “Type A” personalities. Type A personalities are workaholics, always busy, driven, somewhat impatient, and so on. Type B personalities, on the other hand are laid back and easy going. This term is used quite often in both scientific research and in common parlance.

Self Assessment Questions

- 1) What are the different Ayurvedic type personality?

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- 2) How will you compare this with Sheldon’s somatotype?

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- 3) What are Jungian personality types?

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- 4) Explain Myer Briggs 16 personality types.

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3.7 BLOCK'S PERSONALITY TYPES

J. Block (1971) identified 3 personality types based on his work with adolescent boys. The three types were, for instance

- i) Well-adjusted or Resilient person: adaptable, flexible, resourceful, interpersonally successful.
- ii) Overcontrolling: this is a maladjusted type, uptight, and difficult to deal with person.
- iii) Undercontrolled: another maladjusted type, impulsive, risky, delinquent or even criminal behaviour; unsafe sex etc.

While type theories of personality remained popular for a period of time, these theories were criticized as being too simple and that which did not take into consideration the multidimensional aspects and the continuous nature of the personality traits. Despite criticisms against type theories of personality, there are yet certain strengths in these types of personality theories even though considerable weaknesses have been identified.

3.7.1 Strengths and Limitations of Personality Types

Type theory in general has been criticised as over simplistic because it overlooks the multi dimensional and continuous nature of personality traits.

Individual differences may be qualitative but not quantitative. In other words, there may be a difference in the qualities of personality traits that people possess rather than how much of a trait that one possesses. So measurement of these aspects in quantitative terms is rather difficult.

A key strength of the personality type approach, is its simple applicability and person centered relevance. For example one may be able to complete personality type profiles for helping improve how people get along in relationships and at work.

Self Assessment Questions

- 1) What are Type A and Type B personality types?

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- 2) What were the three personality types put forward by J.Block?

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3.8 EYSENCK'S TRAIT-TYPE THEORY

Eysenck, Hans Jurgen 1916-97, was a British psychologist. He was known for his theory of human personality. He suggested that personality is biologically determined and is arranged in a hierarchy consisting of types, traits, habitual responses, and specific responses. Eysenck did not believe in Freudian psychoanalysis as he considered it rather unscientific.

1.8.1 Hierarchical Taxonomy

According to Eysenck Personality can be studied from either temperamental or cognitive aspects, or both. He focussed on the temperament aspect of personality in his PEN model. For better understanding of the PEN model, therefore, the study should begin with its description or taxonomy of personality or temperament.

As Eysenck (1991) states, "In any science, taxonomy precedes causal analysis" (p. 774). In the course of taxonomy (classification), any organisms can be organised into groups based on characters and their relationships. Eysenck describes in plain terms how taxonomy in the study of personality can be achieved using the correlational technique called factor analysis:

In the case of personality study the organisms concerned are human beings, the characters are traits, measured by experiment, by rating, by self-rating, or in some other way. Traits can be correlated over subjects, or subjects over traits, giving us groups of people showing similarity over traits, or groups of traits, cohering as factors over people. We can then look at the traits (or people) having the highest factor loadings in order to better identify the trait clusters. (Eysenck, 1991, p. 775)

Individual differences in personality or temperament are analysed in terms of traits, which can be defined as theoretical constructs based on "covariation of a number of behavioural acts" (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1985, p. 12). However, Eysenck (1991) further supposes that traits themselves intercorrelate and make up higher-order factors or superfactors, which Eysenck calls "types."

As a result, the PEN (Psychoticism Extraversion and Neuroticism) model proposes a hierarchical classification of personality containing four levels.

At the very bottom level of the hierarchy are behaviours such as talking with a friend on a single occasion.

At the second level are habits such as talking with friends on multiple occasions, which are comprised of recurring behaviours.

The third level of the hierarchy is that of traits or factors such as sociability, which are comprised of intercorrelated sets of habits.

At the top of the hierarchy are superfactors or dimensions of personality such as extraversion, which are intercorrelated sets of traits or factors.

Eysenck suggests three such superfactors: extraversion (E), neuroticism (N), and psychoticism (P). These three superfactors or dimensions of personality are orthogonal to each other, which means that they do not correlate with each other (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1985).

The PEN model is based on the principle of “aggregation,” in which measures will have higher reliability if they are comprised of many items (Eysenck, 1990). That is, each superfactor in the PEN model is comprised of many different factors, habits, and behaviours, and thus reliability of measurement is increased.

The superfactors of extraversion, neuroticism, and psychoticism at the top level of the hierarchy are stable, whereas behaviours such as talking with a friend on a single occasion at the bottom of the hierarchy are changeable across time and situation. In this respect, the distinction between levels is very important for the analysis of personality in the PEN model.

3.8.2 Three Dimensions of Personality

Eysenck strongly advocates that there are only three major dimensions or superfactors in the description of personality: extraversion-introversion; emotional stability versus instability, or neuroticism; and psychoticism versus impulse control (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1985).

In the PEN model, these dimensions or superfactors are based on “constitutional, genetic, or inborn factors, which are to be discovered in the physiological, neurological, and biochemical structure of the individual” (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1985, pp. 42-43).

Each person does not necessarily have either 100 percent or zero percent of extraversion, neuroticism, or psychoticism. An individual may show some degree of these superfactors on the continuum. A person may have high extraversion, moderate neuroticism, and low psychoticism. Eysenck suggests after studying psychosis:

- 1) Psychotic symptoms and illnesses do not form completely separate diagnostic entities.
- 2) Psychosis is not a separate diagnostic entity which is categorically separated from normality
- 3) This continuum is co-linear with the concept of psychoticism, embodied in the P scale of the EPQ.

On this continuum, a person with high extraversion is sociable, popular, optimistic, and rather unreliable, whereas a person with low extraversion is quiet, introspective, reserved, and reliable. A person with high neuroticism is anxious, worried, moody, and unstable, whereas a person with low neuroticism is calm, even-tempered, carefree, and emotionally stable. A person with high psychoticism is troublesome, uncooperative, hostile, and socially withdrawn, whereas a person with low psychoticism is altruistic, socialised, empathic, and conventional (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1985).

3.8.3 Causal Aspects

Based on a three-dimensional description of personality, the PEN model further attempts to provide causal explanation of personality. The PEN model looks for psychophysiological, hormonal, and other biological mechanisms responsible for the personality dimensions, so that the theory can be tested by scientific experiments. Eysenck and Eysenck (1985) clearly contend that “no theory would be considered valid that did not make testable and verified predictions” (p. 187). Consequently, Eysenck (1990) proposes the arousal theory, by modifying his inhibition theory to explain the causal roots of the three dimensions of personality.

Self Assessment Questions

- 1) Elucidate the Trait Type theory of personality by Eysenck.

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- 2) What is meant by Hierarchical Taxonomy? How is personality types conceived of by Eysenck in terms of the taxonomy?

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- 3) What are the three dimensions of personality?

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- 4) Define and describe the causal aspects of personality according to Eysenck.

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3.9 NEUROPHYSIOLOGICAL BASIS OF TRAITS AND TYPES

According to Aleksandrov and Shchukina (1992), the neurophysiological indices of neurotic patients with different types of individual character and their dynamics are important factors of personality. They took 107 patients with different patterns of neuroses, who underwent group psychotherapy (a personality-oriented (reconstructive) variety).

Analysis of the dynamics of the neurophysiological characteristics, made during group psychotherapy, supported the clinical data on varying curability of neurotic

patients with different types of character accentuations. For instance, Patients with the hysteroid type character accentuation appeared more resistant to psychotherapy.

Eysenck also made an attempt to specify a neurophysiological basis for each of his three personality super traits or types. According to him, the super trait Introversion-extraversion is closely related to levels of *cortical arousal* as indicated by electroencephalographic recordings.

Eysenck(1982) used the term arousal to denote a continuum of excitation, ranging from a lower extreme (e.g.,sleep) to an upper extreme (e.g., state of panic). He was of the view that introverts are over aroused and thus are highly sensitive to incoming stimulation. For this reason, they avoided situations that are apt to overwhelm them.

Extraverts are under aroused and thus are highly insensitive to incoming stimulation and thus they constantly seek out situations that are apt to excite them.

Eysenck hypothesized that individual differences in stability vs neuroticism reflected the degree to which the autonomic nervous system reacts to stimuli. He linked this dimension with the limbic system, the brain's visceral or feeling system, which influences motivation and emotional behaviour.

He pointed out that persons high on neuroticism tend to react more quickly to painful, novel, disturbing, or other stimuli than do more stable persons. Such persons also exhibit a more persistent reaction (even after the stimulus has disappeared) than do highly stable persons.

Eysenck's neurophysiological interpretation of the dimensions of personality is closely related to his theory of psychopathology. He was of the view that the symptoms or disorders that befall a person are related to the combined impact of personality traits and nervous system functioning. For instance, the person who is high on the dimensions of introversion and neuroticism is more prone to develop anxiety disorders such as phobias, obsessions, and, compulsions. On the other hand, the person who is high on the extraversion and neuroticism dimensions is at a risk for psychopathic (antisocial) disorders.

Eysenck stated that psychological disorders do not automatically occur as a result of genetic predisposition. These genetic predispositions when interact with the environment or a certain situation produce psychological disorders.

3.9.1 Extraversion and Cortical Arousal

According to the arousal theory, Eysenck (1990) provides a biological explanation of extraversion in terms of cortical arousal via the ascending reticular activating system (ARAS).

Activity in the ARAS stimulates the cerebral cortex, which, in turn, leads to higher cortical arousal.

Cortical arousal can be measured by skin conductance, brain waves, or sweating (Eysenck, 1990).

Because of the different levels of ARAS activity, “introverts are characterised by higher levels of activity than extraverts and so are *chronically more cortically aroused* than extraverts” (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1985, p. 197, emphasis added).

Based on the Yerkes-Dodson law, which suggests that arousal and performance have an inverted-U relationship, the arousal theory of the PEN model assumes that “some intermediate level of arousal is optimal for performance” (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1985, p. 199).

3.9.2 Neuroticism and Visceral Brain Activation

Eysenck (1990) also explains neuroticism in terms of activation thresholds in the sympathetic nervous system or visceral brain. The visceral brain is also referred to as the limbic system, which consists of the hippocampus, amygdala, septum, and hypothalamus, and regulates such emotional states as sex, fear, and aggression. It is responsible for the fight-or-flight response in the face of danger. Heart rate, blood pressure, skin conductance, sweating, breathing rate, and muscular tension in the forehead can measure activation levels of the visceral brain.

Neurotic individuals have greater activation levels and lower thresholds within the visceral brain. They are easily upset in the face of very minor stresses. However, emotionally stable people are calm under such stresses because they have lesser activation levels and higher thresholds (Eysenck, 1990).

3.9.3 Psychoticism and Gonadal Hormones

Eysenck (1990) also provides a biological explanation of psychoticism in terms of gonadal hormones such as testosterone and enzymes such as monoamine oxidase (MAO).

Eysenck (1992a) reports that “low platelet monoamine oxydase (MAO) has been found in psychotic patients, and also in their relatives and inpatients who have recovered, suggesting that low MAO activity may be a marker for ‘vulnerability’” (p. 774).

All things considered, the PEN model has contributed to the study of personality in three distinctive ways.

- 1) It combines both descriptive and causal aspects of personality in one theory (Eysenck, 1997; Stelmack, 1997). This characteristic clearly distinguishes the PEN model from most other trait theories such as the five-factor model (Costa & McCrae, 1992a, 1992b; Eysenck, 1991, 1992b, 1992c).
- 2) It provides causal explanations in addition to the description of personality.
- 3) The PEN model is supported by more credible evidence than purely descriptive models.
- 4) The PEN model is comprehensive in description by proposing a hierarchy of four levels and by making a clear distinction among those levels.
- 5) Finally, the PEN model becomes most compelling because of its experimental approach to the study of personality, which makes the model more testable. Consequently, the PEN model is likely to generate more specific predictions about personality.

Thus the essence of Eysenck's Trait-Type theory is that

- 1) Elements of personality can be arranged hierarchically.
- 2) Certain supertraits or **types**, such as extraversion, exert a powerful influence over behaviour.
- 3) These supertraits comprised of several component traits, and these component traits either are more superficial reflections of the underlying type dimension, or are specific qualities that contribute to that dimension.

According to Eysenck, traits are composed of numerous *habitual responses*, which, in turn, are derived from a multitude of *specific responses*.

The trait of sociability correlates with such response dispositions as activity, liveliness, assertiveness etc. Taken together, these traits define a super trait or type Eysenck calls *extraversion*.

In considering Eysenck's hierarchical model of personality structure, it should be noted that the word "type" refers to dimensions of personality that he regards as normally distributed along a continuum. This is almost equivalent to traits. Thus, for example, the type concept of extraversion is a dimension with a low end and a high end along which people may fall at various points between the two extremes. It is not a dimension on which people can be classified as either low or high. Eysenck does not imply discontinuity when he uses the word "type".

Self Assessment Questions

- 1) Describe the neurophysiological basis of trait and types.

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- 2) How does Eysenck explain extraversion in terms of neurophysiological explanation

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- 3) How is Neuroticism explained in terms neurophysiological mechanism?

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- 4) How does Eysenck connect psychoticism to Gonalad hormones. Explain?

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3.10 BASIC PERSONALITY TYPES

Eysenck used a variety of methods for gathering information about people in order to delineate their personality. These methods included self-reports, observer ratings, biographical information, assessments of physique and physiology, and objective physiological tests. These data are factor analysed to determine the structure of personality. Initially Eysenck found two basic type dimensions that he labeled as *introversion-extraversion* and *neuroticism-stability* (a factor sometimes called instability-stability).

Eysenck (1976) added a third type dimension of personality, which he called *psychoticism-superego strength*. People high on this super trait dimension tend to be egocentric, impulsive, sensitive to others, and opposed to social customs.

They are often seen as:

- i) troublesome,
- ii) not fitting in well with others, and
- iii) intentionally upsetting other people.

Eysenck suggested that psychoticism is a genetic predisposition toward becoming either psychotic or psychopathic. He regarded psychoticism as a personality continuum along which all people can be located. He also added that this trait is found more commonly in men than in women.

3.11 MEASUREMENT OF PERSONALITY

Eysenck constructed a number of self-report questionnaires to assess individual differences associated with his three super trait dimensions of personality. One of the more popular scale is the EPQ that is Eysenck Personality Questionnaire (EPQ) (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1975). EPQ includes a lie scale aimed at detecting a person's tendency to fake responses to look good. A junior EPQ has been constructed for use with children between the ages of 7 and 15 (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1973).

3.11.1 Differences Between Introverts and Extraverts

Eysenck argues that individual differences in behavioural functioning can be discovered through factor analysis and measured through the use of questionnaires and laboratory procedures.

A review of studies (Wilson, 1978) conclude that

- 1) Extraverts have a greater tolerance for pain than do introverts.

- 2) They engage in more talk and coffee breaks at work than do introverts.
- 3) Excitement enhances their performance whereas it interferes with the performance of introverts.
- 4) Introverts prefer theoretical and scientific vocations(e.g., engineering and chemistry, whereas extraverts tend to prefer people-oriented jobs(e.g., sales and social work).
- 5) Introverts report more frequent masturbation than do extraverts, but extraverts engage in sexual intercourse earlier in life, more often, and with more partners than do introverts.
- 6) Introverts attain higher grades in college than do extraverts.
- 7) Also students who withdraw from college for psychiatric reasons tend to be introverts, whereas those who withdraw for academic reasons tend to be extraverts.
- 8) Introverts show higher arousal levels in the mornings, whereas extraverts show higher arousal levels in the evening.
- 9) Introverts work better in the morning, and the extroverts work better in the afternoon.

One of the most striking differences between introverts and extraverts is in their sensitivity to stimulation. This difference can be easily demonstrated by the “lemon drop test”(Corcoran,1964).When four drops of lemon juice are placed on a person’s tongue, it turns out that introverts secrete almost twice the amount of saliva as do extraverts.

The basis of this finding is related to different patterns of physiological functioning in introverts and extraverts. Eysenck proposes that ascending reticular activating system in the brain stem is responsible for controlling the differences in response to stimulation between introverted and extraverted subjects.

3.12 LET US SUM UP

The trait-type theory of Eysenck is based on factor analysis. His hierarchical model of personality structure includes the dimensions of types, traits, habitual responses, and specific responses. Types represent supertrait dimensions along which people may be located at various points between two extremes. Eysenck suggests that personality types are dimensional and that most people do not fall into separate categories. Eysenck sees only two major types or traits as underlying personality structure: introversion-extraversion and stability-neuroticism. At a later stage he also added one more dimension that is psychoticism and super ego strength. The differences in these two supertraits, as well as a third factor called psychoticism-superego strength, are closely related to differences in neurophysiological functioning. Eysenck places far more emphasis on the genetic foundations of traits than does Cattell. However according to Eysenck the genetic predisposition when interacts with the environmental factors produce the requisite behaviours which may be normal or abnormal.

Eysenck has developed several questionnaires to assess the three major supertraits underlying his hierarchical model of personality. EPQ is the most important tool to assess the differences between introverts and extraverts.

3.13 UNIT END QUESTIONS

- 1) Discuss the Type theory of personality highlighting the characteristic features
- 2) How does type theory differ from trait theory of personality?
- 3) Discuss and compare the Sheldon somatotype personality with that of Ayurvedic body type.
- 4) Discuss Jungian Personality types and indicate how the EPQ was devised.
- 5) Elucidate Eysenck's trait type theory of personality.
- 6) Give neurophysiological explanations for neuroticism, extraversion and psychoticism.
- 7) How do you measure personality according to Eysenck?
- 8) What are the basic personality types?
- 9) Differentiate between extraversion and introversion personality types.

3.14 GLOSSARY

Extraversion	:	One end of the introversion-extraversion type dimension of personality characterised by a tendency to be sociable, impulsive, and excitable.
Introversion	:	One end of the introversion-extraversion type dimension of personality characterised by a tendency to be reserved, controlled, and introspective.
Neuroticism	:	One end of the neuroticism-stability type dimension of personality characterised by a tendency to be anxious, moody, and depressed.
Psychoticism	:	One end of the neuroticism-stability type dimension of personality characterised by a tendency to be solitary and insensitive to others.
Stability	:	One end of the neuroticism-stability type dimension of personality characterised by a tendency to be calm, controlled and unemotional.
Superego strength	:	One end of the psychoticism-superego strength type dimension characterised by a tendency to be empathetic, sensitive, and cooperative.
Supertrait	:	General and continuous trait dimensions, such as introversion-extraversion, that exert a powerful influence on behaviour.

3.15 SUGGESTED READINGS AND REFERENCES

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UNIT 4 THE BIG FIVE FACTORS: THE BASIC DIMENSIONS OF PERSONALITY

Structure

- 4.0 Introduction
- 4.1 Objectives
- 4.2 Definition of the Big Five Factors
 - 4.2.1 Discovery of the Big Five in Cattell's Variable List
- 4.3 The Big Five Theory
 - 4.3.1 Five Factor Model
 - 4.3.2 Theoretical Perspectives on the Big Five: Description and Explanation
 - 4.3.3 Advantages of the Big Five Structure
- 4.4 Measurement of the Big Five Inventory (BFI)
 - 4.4.1 Big Five Personality Traits in Psychology
 - 4.4.2 Important Characteristics of the Five Factors
 - 4.4.3 Major Proponents of the Big Five and the Lexical Basis
 - 4.4.4 Best Ways to Describe Personality
- 4.5 Let Us Sum Up
- 4.6 Unit End Questions
- 4.7 Glossary
- 4.8 Suggested Readings and References

4.0 INTRODUCTION

Research conducted during the last few decades has converged on the conclusion that in fact, there may be only five key or central dimensions of personality instead of many personality dimensions. The trait and type theorists put forward many dimensions of personality and delineated the characteristic features of the traits. Using factor analysis from amongst a large number of dimensions, the researchers identified clusters of dimensions and these formed the personality factors. Thus the Big 5 personality dimensions are identified clusters of personality traits and these can be delineated by a measurement tool (questionnaire). These are being discussed in detail in this unit.

4.1 OBJECTIVES

After completing this unit, you will be able to:

- Define the Big 5 factor dimensions of personality;
- Explain the Big 5 factors;
- Analyse the methods by which the five factors were extracted; and
- Describe the methods by which these factors could be measured.

4.2 DEFINITION OF THE BIG FIVE FACTORS

Personality has been conceptualised from many theoretical perspectives. Each has contributed to understanding of individual differences in behaviour and experience. However so many personality scales to measure personality came about as a result of continuing research and one had not overall rationale to use a particular scale.

Thus personality psychology needed a descriptive model, a taxonomy of its subject matter. One of the goals of taxonomie is to bring a number of specific instances within a domain so as to understand it in a simple way. Thus in personality the taxonomy will help to study specified domains of personality characteristics, instead of examining separately thousands of particular attributes that make individuals unique.

The Big Five personality dimension is the result of finding a general taxonomy and these dimensions do not represent a particular theoretical perspective but derived from people's description of themselves and others in their natural language. The Big Five instead of replacing the earlier systems, serves as an integrative mechanism and represents the various and diverse systems of personality description in a common framework.

Allport and Odbert's classifications provided some initial structure for the personality lexicon. Since taxonomy has to provide a systematic framework for distinguishing, ordering and naming individual differences in people's behaviour and experience, they took a list of a large number of personality traits used in common parlance. The size of that list was so huge that Cattell (1943) began with a subset of 4500 trait items. Using semantic and empirical clustering procedures Cattell reduced the 4500 items to a mere 35 variables. He used these small set of variables to identify 12 personality factors which eventually became a part of his 16 PF questionnaire.

4.2.1 Discovery of the Big Five in Cattell's Variable List

Cattell's work gave impetus to many research investigations and many were involved in the discovery and clarification of the Big Five dimensions. First, Fiske (1949) constructed simplified description from 22 variables of Cattell. The factor structure were obtained from self ratings etc. They worked out a correlational matrix from different samples and found clusters which they called the Big five.

This five factor structure has been replicated by many in lists derived from Cattell's 35 variables. These factors were initially labeled as (i) Extraversion or Surgency (ii) Agreeableness (iii) Conscientiousness (iv) Emotional stability versus neuroticism and (v) Culture. These factors came to be known as the Big Five . These five dimension s represent personality at the broadest level of abstraction, and each dimension summarises a large number of distinct, more specific personality characteristics.

Following Fiske's research, there were attempts by other researchers including Norman (1967), Smith (1967), Goldberg (1981), and McCrae & Costa (1987).

The “big five” are broad categories of personality traits. While there is a significant body of literature supporting this five-factor model of personality, researchers do not always agree on the exact labels for each dimension. However, these five categories are usually described as follows:

Extraversion: This is also called as Surgency. The broad dimension of Extraversion encompasses specific traits as talkative, energetic, and assertive. More specifically these include characteristics such as excitability, sociability, talkativeness, assertiveness, and high amounts of emotional expressiveness.

Agreeableness: This factor includes traits like sympathetic, kind, and affectionate. It also includes attributes such as trust, altruism, kindness, affection, and other prosocial behaviours.

Conscientiousness: This includes traits like organised, thorough, and planful tendencies. Common features of this dimension include high levels of thoughtfulness, with good impulse control and goal-directed behaviours. Those high in conscientiousness tend to be organised and mindful of details.

Neuroticism: This is sometimes reversed and called Emotional Stability. This dimension includes traits like tense, moody, and anxious. Individuals high in this trait tend to experience emotional instability, anxiety, moodiness, irritability, and sadness.

Openness to Experience: This is also called as Intellect or Intellect/Imagination. This dimension includes traits like having wide interests, and being imaginative and insightful. Those high in this trait also tend to have a broad range of interests.

These dimensions represent broad areas of personality. Research has demonstrated that these groupings of characteristics tend to occur together in many people. For example, individuals who are sociable tend to be talkative. However, these traits do not always occur together. Personality is complex and varied and each person may display behaviours across several of these dimensions.

Each of the Big Five factors is quite broad and consists of a range of more specific traits. The Big Five structure was derived from statistical analyses of which traits tend to co-occur in people’s descriptions of themselves or other people. The underlying correlations are probabilistic, and exceptions are possible. For example, talkativeness and assertiveness are both traits associated with Extraversion, but they do not go together by logical necessity. One could imagine somebody who is assertive but not talkative (the “strong, silent type”). However, many studies indicate that people who are talkative are usually also assertive (and vice versa), which is why they go together under the broader Extraversion factor.

For this reason, one should be clear about the research goals when choosing the measures. If it expected that one has to make finer distinctions (such as between talkativeness and assertiveness), a broad-level Big Five instrument will not be enough. One may have to use one of the longer inventories that make facet-level distinctions (like the NEO PI-R or the IPIP scales. or one could supplement a shorter inventory (like the Big Five Inventory) with additional scales that measure the specific dimensions that you are interested in.

It is also worth noting that there are many aspects of personality that are not subsumed within the Big Five. The term *personality trait* has a special meaning in personality psychology that is narrower than the everyday usage of the term. Motivations, emotions, attitudes, abilities, self-concepts, social roles, autobiographical memories, and life stories are just a few of the other “units” that personality psychologists study.

Some of these other units may have theoretical or empirical relationships with the Big Five traits, but they are conceptually distinct. For this reason, even a very comprehensive profile of somebody’s *personality traits* can only be considered a partial description of their *personality*.

4.3 THE BIG FIVE THEORY

Let us see the difference between the terms *Big Five*, *Five-Factor Model*, and *Five-Factor Theory*.

The **Big Five** are, collectively, a taxonomy of personality trait. It is a coordinate system that maps which traits go together in people’s descriptions or ratings of one another.

The Big Five are an empirically based phenomenon, not a theory of personality. The Big Five factors were discovered through a statistical procedure called factor analysis, which was used to analyse how ratings of various personality traits are correlated in humans.

The original derivations relied heavily on American and Western European samples, and researchers are still examining the extent to which the Big Five structure generalises across cultures.

4.3.1 Five Factor Model

The Five-Factor Model is a term used often instead of the “Big Five.” In scientific usage, the word “model” can refer either to a descriptive framework of what has been observed, or to a theoretical explanation of causes and consequences.

The Five-Factor Model (i.e., Big Five) is a model in the descriptive sense only. The term “Big Five” was coined by Lew Goldberg and was originally associated with studies of personality traits used in natural language.

The term “Five-Factor Model” has been more commonly associated with studies of traits using personality questionnaires. The two research traditions yielded largely consonant models and in current practice the terms are often used interchangeably. A subtle but sometimes important area of disagreement between the lexical and questionnaire approaches is over the definition and interpretation of the fifth factor, called Intellect/Imagination by many lexical researchers and Openness to Experience by many questionnaire researchers.

4.3.2 Theoretical Perspectives on the Big Five: Description and Explanation

Over the years many perspectives on the concept of the Big Five dimensions have been presented. As is known the Big Five were first discovered in lexical research to provide taxonomy of trait items and thus the factors were initially

interpreted as dimensions of trait or attribution. Further research showed that the dimensions have external /predictive validity and all five of them show equal heritability. Since the Big Five dimensions refer to real individual differences, one must find out as to how these differences are conceptualised.

Several theories conceptualise the Big Five as relational constructs. In Interpersonal theory the theoretical emphasis is on the individual in relationships. According to Sullivan (1953) the Big Five describe the enduring patterns of recurrent interpersonal situations that characterise human life. However, Wiggins and Trapnell (1996) are of the view that interpersonal motives are important and thus they interpret all the Big Five dimensions in terms of their interpersonal implications.

Socioanalytic theory by Hogan (1996) focuses on the social functions of self and other perceptions and he points out that traits are socially constructed to serve interpersonal functions. As trait terms are about reputation that is the individual considers how others view them, the possibility of the person distorting the self reports and questionnaires is high. Thus self deceptive bias enters and one does not get the true picture of the individual's personality.

The evolutionary theory on the Big Five states that humans have evolved "difference detecting mechanisms" to perceive individual differences that are important for survival and reproduction (D.M. Buss & Shackelford, 1997). Buss views personality as one where the Big Five traits represent the most salient and important dimensions of the individual's survival needs. This theory emphasises both person perception and individual differences and point out that the Big Five summarises the centrally important individual differences.

McCrae and Costa (1996) view Big Five as causal personality dispositions. Their five factor theory (FFT) explains the Big Five taxonomy. According to FFT, the Big Five dimensions have a substantial genetic base and hence derive from biological structures and processes. According to this theory, personality traits are basic tendencies that refer to the underlying potentials of the individual. On the other hand attitudes, roles, relationships and goals are characteristic adaptations that reflect the interaction between the basic tendencies and environmental demands. While basic tendencies remain stable across life, the adaptations undergo considerable changes.

Another theory is the comparative approach to personality that studies individual differences in both human and non humans. Thus there are a diverse theories regarding the Big Five dimensions from purely descriptive to biologically based causal concepts. These perspectives however are not mutually exclusive. Research in areas like behaviour genetics, molecular genetics, personality stability and change, and accuracy and bias in interpersonal perception will help in building and refining a comprehensive theory of Big Five.

4.3.3 Advantages of the Big Five Structure

The Big Five structure has the advantage of everyone being able to understand definitions and meanings used in describing this concept. Several of the dimensions of the Big Five especially Extraversion and Neuroticism have been explained both from physiological and mechanistic perspectives. In one sense, the Big Five differentiate domains of individual differences that have similar

surface manifestations. The Big Five structure is a major step ahead in that it captures the commonalities amongs most of the existing systems of personality description, and provides an integrative descriptive model.

Five-Factor Theory includes a number of propositions about the nature, origins, and developmental course of personality traits, and about the relation of traits to many of the other personality variables mentioned earlier. Five-Factor Theory presents a biological account of personality traits, in which learning and experience play little if any part in influencing the Big Five.

Five-Factor Theory is not the only theoretical account of the Big Five. Other personality psychologists have proposed that environmental influences, such as social roles, combine and interact with biological influences in shaping personality traits. For example, Brent Roberts has recently advanced an interactionist approach under the name **Social Investment Theory**.

Finally, it is important to note that the Big Five are used in many areas of psychological research in ways that do not depend on the specific propositions of any one theory. For example, in **interpersonal perception** research the Big Five are a useful model for organising people's perceptions of one another's personalities. I have argued that the Big Five are best understood as a model of reality-based person perception. In other words, it is a model of what people want to know about one another (Srivastava, 2010).

Regardless of whether you endorse any particular theory of personality traits, it is still quite possible that you will benefit from measuring and thinking about the Big Five in your research.

4.4 MEASUREMENT OF THE BIG FIVE INVENTORY (BFI)

Big Five Inventory (BFI) is a self-report inventory designed to measure the Big Five dimensions. It is quite brief for a multidimensional personality inventory (44 items total), and consists of short phrases with relatively accessible vocabulary. A copy of the BFI, with scoring instructions, is reprinted in the chapter as an appendix (the last 2 pages). It is also available through Oliver John's lab website. No permission is needed to use the BFI for noncommercial research purposes (see below).

What are other ways of measuring the Big Five?

The BFI is not your only option for measuring the Big Five...

The International Personality Item Pool, developed and maintained by Lew Goldberg, has scales constructed to work as analogs to the commercial NEO PI-R and NEO-FFI scales (see below). IPIP scales are 100% public domain - no permission required, ever.

Colin DeYoung and colleagues have published a 100-item measure, called the Big Five Aspect Scales (BFAS), which scores not only the Big Five factors, but also two "aspects" of each. The BFAS is in the public domain as well.

If you want items that are single adjectives, rather than full sentences (like the NEO) or short phrases (like the BFI and IPIP), you have several options. For

starters, there is Lew Goldberg's set of 100 trait-descriptive adjectives (published in *Psychological Assessment*, 1992). Gerard Saucier reduced this set to 40 Big Five mini-markers that have excellent reliability and validity (*Journal of Personality Assessment*, 1994). More recently, Saucier has developed new trait marker sets that maximize the orthogonality of the factors (*Journal of Research in Personality*, 2002). Saucier's mini-markers are in the public domain.

The NEO PI-R is a 240-item inventory developed by Paul Costa and Jeff McCrae. It measures not only the Big Five, but also six "facets" (subordinate dimensions) of each of the Big Five. The NEO PI-R is a commercial product, controlled by a for-profit corporation that expects people to get permission and, in many cases, pay to use it. Costa and McCrae have also created the NEO-FFI, a 60-item truncated version of the NEO PI-R that only measures the five factors. The NEO-FFI is also commercially controlled.

If you need a super-duper-short measure of the Big Five, you can use the Ten Item Personality Inventory, recently developed by Sam Gosling, Jason Rentfrow, and Bill Swann. But read their journal article first (it is on Sam Gosling's web page). There are substantial measurement tradeoffs associated with using such a short instrument, which the article discusses.

As mentioned earlier, the **IPIP scales**, Saucier's **mini-markers**, and the **Big Five Aspect Scales** are all in the public domain and may be used for any purpose with no restrictions.

Additionally, the **BFI** (which is copyrighted by Oliver P. John) is freely available to researchers who wish to use it for research (not commercial) purposes. More details are available on Oliver John's lab website. If you cannot find your questions answered there, you can contact Laura Naumann (naumann@berkeley.edu) for further information.

4.4.1 Big Five Personality Traits in Psychology

The "Big Five" Personality Dimensions

Extroversion : activity and energy level traits, sociability and emotional expressiveness.

Agreeableness: altruism, trust, modesty, prosocial attitudes.

Conscientiousness : Impulse control, goal directed behaviour.

Neuroticism : emotional stability, anxiety, sadness, and irritability

Openness: Breadth, Complexity, and depth of an individuals life.

These five dimensions have been used to account for variance in: i) Academic Achievement (ii) Work Performance (iii) Well Being Juvenile Delinquency (iv) The Big Five Personality Traits in Psychology (v) The person's Personal Dimensions Affect All Aspects of Life

One does not need a Myers Briggs Personality Test to know if your personality type is working for or against you! Here are the Big Five Personality Traits and how they work.

The Big Five Personality Traits affect the person's health, relationships, goals, achievements, professional success, and even the spiritual life. The person's whole

life is affected both positively and negatively by the Big Five Personality Traits!

The fundamental five personality characteristics - called the “Big Five Personality Traits” among psychologists - were once thought to remain the same since childhood. Now, experts believe the Big Five Personality Traits change over time.

The five-factor model is comprised of five personality dimensions (OCEAN): Openness to Experience, Conscientiousness, Extraversion, Agreeableness, and Neuroticism. The five dimensions are held to be a complete description of personality.

A competing model with three dimensions based on psychophysiology is the **PEN Model**. Extraversion and Agreeableness are only rotations of the dimensions in **Interpersonal Theory**.

A trait is a temporally stable, cross-situational individual difference. Currently the most popular approach among psychologists for studying personality traits is the five-factor model or Big Five dimensions of personality. The five factors were derived from factor analyses of a large number of self- and peer reports on personality-relevant adjectives and questionnaire items.

4.4.2 Important Characteristics of the Five Factors

The following are some of the important characteristics of the five factors:

- 1) First, the factors are dimensions, not types, so people vary continuously on them, with most people falling in between the extremes.
- 2) Second, the factors are stable over a 45-year period beginning in young adulthood (Soldz & Vaillant, 1999).
- 3) Third, the factors and their specific facets are heritable (i.e., genetic), at least in part (Jang, McCrae, Angleitner, Riemann, & Livesley, 1998; Loehlin, McCrae, Costa, & John, 1998).
- 4) Fourth, the factors probably had adaptive value in a prehistoric environment (Buss, 1996).
- 5) Fifth, the factors are considered universal, having been recovered in languages as diverse as German and Chinese (McCrae & Costa, 1997).
- 6) Sixth, knowing one's placement on the factors is useful for insight and improvement through therapy (Costa & McCrae, 1992).

The differences between two empirically related yet conceptually distinct models, the Big Five and the five-factor model, are summarised below.

4.4.3 Major Proponents of the Big Five and the Lexical Basis

Goldberg

FFM: McCrae and Costa

Lexical basis

Lexical hypothesis—those individual differences that are most salient and socially relevant will come to be encoded as terms in the natural language.

Five Factor Model (FFM): Theoretical contexts—traits are situated in a comprehensive model of genetic and environmental causes and contexts.

Position on causation

Big 5: Phenotypic and no stance on causation.

Five Factor Model (FFM). Biosocial, genetic as well as environmental.

Naming of factors

Big 5: Surgency, Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, Emotional Stability, and Intellect.

Five Factor Model (FFM). Extraversion, Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, Neuroticism, and Openness to Experience (OCEAN).

Measurement Model

Big 5: Circular measurement, that is, many items have non-zero correlations (loadings) on two factors rather than just one.

Five Factor Model . Hierarchical measurement , that is, lower-level facets combine to form higher-level domains.

Questionnaires

Big 5: Big Five Markers (recently, International Personality Item Pool, or **IPIP**).

FFM. Revised Neuroticism, Extraversion, Openness Personality Inventory (NEO-PI-R).

Type of Questionnaire Items

Big 5. Adjectives (recently, sentence stems).

FFM. Sentences.

Saucier and Goldberg (1998) presented evidence that nearly all clusters of personality-relevant adjectives can be subsumed under the Big Five.

One of the shortcomings of the Big 5 is that though very useful, it must be stated that there are several important personality traits that lie beyond the Big Five.

In addition, theoretical reasons suggest the importance of other personality traits that are poorly captured by terms in the natural language, such as impulsive, sensation-seeking etc.

Furthermore, traits may be only a limited means of studying a “psychology of the stranger”, that is, they may include only the personality relevant information that would be apparent about someone about whom one knew very little else. Thus it leaves other important constructs such as narrative life story etc., uncovered.

4.4.4 Best way to Describe Personality

What are the best ways to describe an individual’s personality? One might list all of the things that individuals do all day every day of their lives, but that would take too long and be far too detailed to be of much use.

Alternatively, one might use more abstract attributes as a way of summarizing the major ways that individuals differ from each other. Every language has

hundreds of words that refer to the ways that individuals differ. The English language includes at least 20,000 words of that sort (for example, talkative, agreeable, hard-working, nervous, intelligent).

Perhaps those terms that make it into a language and then stay there for centuries are those that people have found to be most useful for describing themselves and others. This “lexical hypothesis” is the basis of much modern research on the structure of human personality traits.

The terms that are descriptive of personality can be used by individuals to describe themselves and others.

For example, one could ask a question, “How talkative is Ram?” The answer could be in a continuum, viz., Not at all (1) A little bit (2) Somewhat (3) Moderately (4) and Extremely (5).

In general, one can measure the extent of similarity between pairs of personality terms with a statistic called the “correlation coefficient.” Based on the intercorrelations among all pairs of personality terms, one can then group the terms into categories or clusters using a statistical procedure called “factor analysis.” The result of research using those statistical techniques is a tentative answer to the important scientific question: “How many different relatively independent kinds of terms are there in that specific language?”

In many languages, it has turned out that the magical number is something like five or six. In English and other northern European languages like German and Dutch, there has seemed to be five major dimensions or “factors” to represent the majority of personality-descriptive terms in that language. This “Big-Five” factor structure has become a scientifically useful taxonomy to understand individual differences in personality traits.

The Big Five factors

- 1) The first is Extraversion versus Introversion, which includes traits such as Active, Assertive, Energetic, Gregarious, and Talkative versus their opposites.
- 2) A second factor is called Agreeableness, which includes traits such as Amiable, Helpful, Kind, Sympathetic, and Trusting versus their opposites.
- 3) A third factor has been labeled Conscientiousness, which includes such traits as Dependable, Hard-working, Responsible, Systematic, and Well-organised versus their opposites.
- 4) A fourth factor contrasts traits related to Emotional Stability, such as Calm, Relaxed, and Stable, with opposite traits such as Afraid, Nervous, Moody, and Temperamental.
- 5) And, finally, there is a constellation of traits related to Intellect and Imagination, such as Artistic, Creative, Gifted, Intellectual, and Scholarly versus their opposites.

Most personality-related words in many modern languages can be classified by their locations in the five-dimensional space provided by the Big-Five factors. Terms are scattered throughout this five-dimensional space, with most terms being blends of two or three of the Big-Five factors. As a consequence, this five-

factor model provides a rich framework for classifying personality traits, and measures of those five broad dimensions have proven to be extremely useful for describing individual persons. Indeed, measures of the Big-Five factors have proven to predict educational and occupational attainment, marital success, good health habits and medical outcomes, and even longevity versus mortality.

Many researches believe that these dimensions are indeed the basic ones. This is indicated, by the fact that these dimensions are ones to which most people in many cultures refer in describing themselves (Funder & Colvin, 1991). If the big five dimensions of personality are really so basic, then it is reasonable to expect that they will be related to important forms of behaviour.

Many studies indicate that this is the case. Where people stand on the big five dimensions is closely linked to important outcomes, such as their success in performing many jobs (e.g., Hogan, Hogan & Roberts, 1996). Many psychologists now view the big five basic dimensions as truly basic, there is *not* total consensus on this point. For example, Eysenck (1994), believes that there are only three basic dimensions—extraversion, neuroticism and psychoticism.

Other psychologists (e.g., Block, 1995) believe that the methods on which the big five dimensions are based (largely the technique of factor analysis) are inadequate. Lastly many psychologists view the big five as providing important insights into the key dimensions of personality.

4.5 LET US SUM UP

The controversy regarding the number of basic personality traits has taken an interesting turn in recent years. Costa & McCrae have examined all possible personality traits. The findings indicate a set of five factors. They are often called Big-Five Factors. These factors include: extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, emotional stability, and openness to experience. This model represents an important theoretical development in the field of personality. It has been found useful in understanding the personality profile of people across cultures. While it is consistent with the analysis of personality traits found in different languages, it is also supported by the studies of personality carried out through different methods. Thus, it is now considered to be the most promising empirical approach to the study of personality.

4.6 UNIT END QUESTIONS

- 1) What are the big –five dimensions of personality? Describe each dimension in detail.
- 2) Discuss Eysenck's three major trait dimensions of personality as largely responsible for a significant portion of human behaviour.
- 3) Discuss the various theoretical perspectives of the Big 5.
- 4) Discuss how individual variations along each trait dimension reflect differences in neurophysiological functioning?
- 5) How was Big 5 discovered?
- 6) Who are the major proponents of Big 5? Discuss the lexical basis of Big 5.

4.7 GLOSSARY

Extraversion	: one of the big-five dimensions of personality; ranges from sociable, talkative and enthusiastic at one end to sober, reserved, and cautious at the other.
Agreeableness	: one of the big-five dimensions of personality; ranges from good natured, cooperative, trusting at one end to irritable, suspicious, uncooperative at the other.
Conscientiousness	: one of the big-five dimensions of personality; ranges from well-organised, careful and responsible at one end to disorganised, careless, and unscrupulous at the other.
Emotional Stability	: one of the big-five dimensions of personality; ranges from poised, calm, and composed at one end to nervous, anxious, and excitable at the other; also called neuroticism.
Openness to Experience	: one of the big-five dimensions of personality; ranges from imaginative, witty, and intellectual at one end to down-to-earth, simple, and narrow in interests at the other.

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UNIT 1 INTRODUCTION TO ASSESSMENT AND TESTING

Structure

- 1.0 Introduction
- 1.1 Objectives
- 1.2 History of Personality Assessment
 - 1.2.1 The OSS
 - 1.2.2 Important Steps in Personality Assessment
 - 1.2.3 Personality Assessment and Related Fields
- 1.3 Influence of Psychological Assessment
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- 1.5 Testing and Measurement Concepts
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- 1.9 Suggested Readings and References

1.0 INTRODUCTION

A pervasive theme in the study of personality is individual differences in people's behaviour and experience. In pursuing the study of individual differences – how are people different from one another – personologists deal with two related concerns. First, is the ways in which people are different. Personologists have used different theoretical concepts to describe the distinctiveness about an individual. Terms such as *trait*, *type*, *motive*, *value*, *temperament*, etc. have been used to depict enduring aspects of human behaviour. Second, personologists are interested in developing ways of measuring individual differences (a process called *assessment*).

Formal personality assessment not only makes it possible to obtain information about individual differences in a meaningful and exact manner but also makes it possible to communicate this information to others in a clear and unambiguous fashion. In this unit 1, we will be dealing with the historical perspectives of personality assessment and measurement, provide meaning and definition and description of personality assessment and follow it up by the reason for assessing personality. The assessment of personality is made through measuring social traits, motives, adjustment etc. Assessment has to be reliable and valid and in order to know how this is to be done, we will be learning in this unit how a test of personality or for that matter any psychological test is standardised, how norms

are developed and we would also learn what is reliability and validity and how these have to be calculated.

1.1 OBJECTIVES

After reading this unit, you will be able to:

- Define personality assessment;
- Describe the individual differences measured in personality assessment;
- Trace the history of personality assessment;
- Explain the meaning and purpose of personality assessment; and
- Describe the criteria for standardisation of personality assessment techniques.

1.2 HISTORY OF PERSONALITY ASSESSMENT

The ways in which people behave have always been of interest. They are of immediate interest to family, friends, and neighbours, for whom the behaviour of a certain person is likely to have direct consequence. Thus there have been many attempts by psychologists and experts to look for and devise instruments to assess personality.

As one traces the history of psychological testing it is interesting to see that as early as 1000 B.C., written tests were introduced by the Chinese in order to fill up civil service positions. In the United States around the year 1850 one finds tests for the civil services examinations starting. James Cattell in 1890 developed a mental test for assessing college students in order to measure their strength, resistance to pain and reaction time. As is well known the first scale of mental development for classifying the mentally retarded children in France was in the year 1905 and this scale originated from Binet and Simon and bears their name as Binet Simon scale of mental development. World War I required tests to quickly classify the new recruits to army and this was done through the Army Alpha and Beta tests, which were specially developed for this purpose in 1914.

It was in 1916 that the term Intelligent Quotient was introduced by Terman who developed Stanford Binet Test after which came the many personality tests and inventories. Between 1920 and 1940 using factor analysis projective tests and personality tests were devised. Between 1941-1960 many vocational interest tests were developed and between 1961 – 1980 neuropsychological testing became prominent. Between 1980 to the present date many tests have been developed which could be administered through the computer, scored and also interpreted.

In regard to personality tests, as one traces the history, one finds that the first name is of a Greek physician Hippocrates. He was a departure from the spiritual side of human behaviours. He theorised that every boy has four fluids (humors); blood, phlegm (...respiratory secretions) yellow bile and black bile. He thought that these fluids affect human body in a number of ways. In 190 AD Galen, another Greek Physician put forward a theory of four body fluids and pointed out that based on the body fluids there are four temperaments, viz., sanguine, phlegm, choleric and melancholic. The sanguine person is supposed to be warm, optimistic and confident, while the phlegmatic body brings about a temperament

which is sluggish, apathetic and indifferent. The yellow bile according to Galen causes a choleric body and thus the temperament consists of violence, anger and aggression. The last one was the black bile body which causes the person to have a melancholic body and the temperament that goes with it includes, sadness, depression and melancholy. He also believed that food, weather, life-periods and geographical conditions affect body temperaments. He was of the view that a healthy body is the direct result of a balance in the ratio of these four body temperaments.

Avicenna, a Muslim physician not only introduced four body temperaments to the Arab world but also analysed many other reasons of human illness.

It was actually Wilhelm Wundt (1879 A.D.) who founded the first psychology laboratory in Leipzig Germany, was the first to make clear the distinction between human body and personality. He theorised that the four temperaments; sanguine, phlegm, cholera and melancholy are four dimensions of the human personality. He gave the psychological touch to the personality tests.

While the history of personality tests took a psychological turn with Wilhelm Wundt, many psychologists contributed to the personality assessment methods. Given below are some of the contributors who belong to the 20th century.

In 1905, Eduard Spranger, a German Philosopher, theorised four attitudes towards ethical values. He named those value attitudes as artistic, religious, theoretic and economic.

Hugo Munsterberg, a professor of the Harvard University made a survey and asked the executives of different organisations to respond. He asked them for qualities which they want to see in their employees. He listed them and devised the first personality test. He intended to help the employers to make the best hiring decisions.

Ernest Kretchmer (1920) , a German philosopher presented a theory of four character styles, viz., hypomanic, depressive, hyperesthetic or anesthetic depending upon their character styles.

Erich Fromm, another German philosopher wrote that there are four human orientation which he termed as exploitative, hoarding, receptive and marketing.

In 1922, Carl Jung, a Swiss psychologist, was the first person to theorise that people always prefer certain identifiable behaviours if they are given a free choice. He also said that on the basis of human preferences, they can be divided in different personality types. Based on this theorisation, two women psychologists, Myers Briggs and Katherine Briggs in the year 1958, applied Jung's theory and developed types of personality which were to be decided based on the answers to four questions which are as given below:

- a) Preferred source of your energy? (Internal or external)
- b) Preferred source of perception? (Senses or Intuition)
- c) Preferred decision making system? (On logics or feelings)
- d) Preferred life style? (ordered or adaptable)

On the basis of the answers received, they identified four cognitive functions; sensory perception, sensory judgment, intuitive feeling and intuitive thinking. Their theory influenced another psychologist named Kiersey, who identified four personality temperaments. David Kiersey associated four temperaments with Myers Briggs four cognitive functions. He developed a personality assessment scale called as “Temperament sorter” which identified four personality temperaments viz., the guardian, the rational, the idealist and the artisan. A person having ‘guardian’ temperament will value responsibility and team membership. The person’s core desires are security, service and system. Such a person is not only responsible towards his job and the organisation but also to his family and the society.

On the other hand, a person having ‘rational’ temperament will value knowledge, skill and intuitive evaluation. Such persons are analytical, experimental and factual. They not only understand abstraction but also can theorise it. Such a person is a knowledge seeker.

The ‘Idealist’ temperament person follows ideals and their intuitive and feeling preferences make them perform great tasks. They desire not only develop themselves but also people around them.

If Kiersey temperaments scale sorts a person an artisan, that person is expected to be action seeker. The core needs of such a person are action and variety. These persons prefer using their five senses to understand information. They are impulsive and spontaneous, dislike routines and schedules, but love freedom of action and experiments.

One can also see how personality assessments became more and more important especially in the work situations. For instance, the German government established a program for selecting officer candidates in the 1920s. By 1936, they had 15 psychological laboratories, with 84 psychologists, evaluating over 40,000 candidates per year. Thus, the Germans invented the modern assessment center in which 4 or 5 candidates are intensively evaluated with interviews and realistic job simulations for two days. At the end, a committee judged the potential of each candidate. The German method examined the “total personality” and produced an overall evaluation of suitability.

Historically, one finds the English selecting military officers using interviews focusing on a candidate’s social class-the higher, the better. When the war started, the supply of upper class candidates was quickly exhausted. The British government then established War Office Selection Boards (WOSB)-assessment centers modeled on the German method. They compared their traditional interview with the WOSBs, and found the assessment centers were superior at identifying good leaders in combat.

1.2.1 The OSS

The U.S. was unprepared for World War II. To enhance its intelligence capabilities, Congress created the Office of Strategic Services (OSS) in 1942; William Donovan, a World War I hero and Wall Street banker, was the director. Donovan and Murray used the German assessment center to screen applicants for the OSS. The Assessment of Men (1948) provides evidence regarding the effectiveness of this process.

Three points about this assessment tradition should be noted.

- 1) It selected candidates based on evaluations of competence and not the absence of psychopathology.
- 2) Researchers consistently evaluated the validity of their process.
- 3) It was demonstrated by Eysenck in 1953 that the one hour of paper and pencil testing yielded results fully comparable to those obtained from the two and one half day assessment center. The same would be true today.

Thus from the above one can state that from the beginning of personality measurement in the 19th century and for the next 75 years, a large number of personality assessment scales were devised to measure a large number of personality concepts. The relatively more recent 'Five Factor Model' personality assessment scale showed that there was a surprising degree of order beneath these personality assessment tests. This predicts occupational performance as well as measures of cognitive ability. In this context, Murray Barrick and Michael Mount showed that personality measures, organised in terms of the Five-Factor Model, predict occupational performance across a wide range of jobs and industries.

1.2.2 Important Steps in Personality Assessment

There are two important steps in personality assessment which are given below.

Step 1. Stipulate the agenda for personality assessment. The agenda for personality assessment concerns forecasting individual differences in a person's potential for getting along and getting ahead.

Step 2. It must be decided as to which aspect of personality one wants to measure. If one wants to assess personality from the inside identity, then a measure of values is needed. This would help to evaluate how well a person will fit into the culture of a specific organisation, as opposed to trying to predict occupational performance. If, however, one wants to assess personality from the outside reputation then one should use observer ratings (e.g., a 360-degree feedback instrument). The optimal use of assessments of reputation is to forecast occupational performance, as opposed to trying to predict person/culture fit.

If the foregoing distinctions are appropriately observed, personality and personality assessment will be indispensable tools for making decisions about people in organisations.

1.2.3 Personality Assessment and Related Fields

Astrology, palmistry, and phrenology are considerably older than any current professional assessment techniques.

Astrology: This is a field in which the personality of the individual is predicted on the basis of the date of birth, place of birth and the time of birth. At the time the person is born, the planetary positions are determined and based on these the individual's personality and the future of the person are predicted. Such attempts to forecast events on earth through observation of fixed stars and other heavenly bodies, is thought to have originated twenty-five centuries ago in Mesopotamia. Their belief that the stars were powerful Gods, led the ancients to conclude that human affairs could be foretold by study of the heavens. Personality and the

course of events in each individual's life were determined by consulting a horoscope. The notion that human lives are predicted by the configuration of the stars at the moment of birth seems though extremely naïve, lots of work and teaching are continuing on in this field.

Biorhythms: Analogous to astrology is the technique of biorhythm, a method for personal prediction developed initially by Wilhelm Fleiss, a colleague of Sigmund Freud and promoted by George Thommen(1973). According to this theory, day-to-day effectiveness is governed by a position on three “cycles”, viz., physical, emotional, and mental – that are fixed according to the moment of birth and are not otherwise modifiable. Because each of the cycles has a different period, they can periodically combine to produce “triple low” days, on which things are likely to go badly, and “triple- high” days, when the opposite will be true.

Palmistry refers to the determining of an individual's character by interpreting the various irregularities and the folds of the skin of the hand. It is known to have existed as a standardised system in China as early as 3000 B.C.

Humoural theory: The search for clear-cut relation between the physical attributes of an individual and his/her psychological characteristics has been continual. This concern had an early expression in the *humoural theory*, that remained current through middle-ages.. This theory proposed four ‘ingredients’: blood, phlegm, yellow bile(choler), and black bile(melancholy). The particular proportion of these four ingredients in different people determine their complexions (or personality characteristics), their physical, and mental qualities and their unique dispositions. It was therefore claimed that, by reading physical signs of the relative amounts of these humours in a given individual, his/her distinctive personality can be determined.

Somatotype theory: The humoural theory came into disuse, with the assumption that human personality is a reflection of physical body. This has been suggested in the seminal work of Sheldon and his colleagues whose theory of *somatotypes* divides people into three major types: the ectomorph, who is thin and fragile; the mesomorph, who is powerful and muscular; and the endomorph, who is round, soft and fat. According to the theory, each of these ideal types has a specific personality that has an innate consequence of that particular body build. Because most individuals have a combination of these three body types, the personality characteristics are determined by the relative proportions of the body type factors in their individual somatotype.

Self Assessment Questions

- 1) Define and describe personality assessment.

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- 2) Trace the history of personality assessment.

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- 3) Discuss Jung's contribution to personality testing.

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- 4) What is OSS? Discuss its needs and how it is used as personality assessment?

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- 5) Discuss how personality assessment is related to other fields such as astrology, biorhythm, humorology and somatotype theories?

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1.3 INFLUENCE OF PSYCHOLOGICAL ASSESSMENT

Scientific personality assessment has its roots in the study of individual differences through psychological measurement. The study of individual differences was given considerable impetus by Darwin's work on evolution. Sir Francis Galton, A famous British scholar of the 19th century, became interested in the inheritance of differences and devoted the later portion of his life to their study.

The study of individual differences in the U.S. was pioneered by James Mckeen Cattell. Although, his interests were mainly in the area of psychophysics, perception, and reaction time, Cattell had a strong influence on the development of other psychological measurement devices, including personality tests.

At about the same time in France, Alfred Binet, who had become enthusiastic about Galton's work on individual differences, began a series of studies of eminent persons in the arts and science. Binet used a standardised series of experimental tasks, including observation on body types, head measurement, and handwriting. He also began a series of investigation into mental functioning (which includes personality), using a wide variety of tasks involving word knowledge, reasoning and numerical ability. These investigations led to the development of now famous Binet Tests of intelligence. Some of the tasks in the tests, involved telling stories about pictures and identifying inkblots, which all paved way for the emergence of 'projective' tests of personality.

Thus, prior to 1915, research on the measurement of personality was preceded by work on the measurement of skills or abilities, it grew out of the early academic interests in the measurement of human individual differences. Galton had introduced the use of direct behaviour samples in real life situations, and his work had stimulated considerable interest in both U.S. and France. Two of Galton's followers, Karl Pearson and Charles Spearman, played a major part in the development of statistical procedures that provided powerful tools for later work in assessment.

1.4 MEANING AND PURPOSE OF PERSONALITY ASSESSMENT

1.4.1 Meaning of Personality Assessment

The term "personality" refers to the total functions of an individual who interacts with the environment. Such definition automatically includes all traits as the main themes of the personality. The purpose of the measurement of personality is to describe a person in terms of some of the measurable factors such as the traits. Trait is nothing but the observed consistency of behaviour of a person. Traits are not directly observed but inferred from the consistent behaviour of an individual. The most general cues to traits are what and how the person does, has well how well the task is done by the individual. .

1.4.2 Purpose of Personality Assessment

Nunnally (1979: P.354) has opined that personality measurement aims at studying the four broad types of traits, viz., social traits, motives, personal conceptions and adjustment. These are being discussed in the following section.

Social traits

Social traits are those traits, which determine how persons interact with other persons in society. Examples of typical social traits are friendliness, honesty, dominance, responsibility, shyness, etc. Thus, within social traits are included traits related to temperament and character.

Motives

Motives here include the non-biological drives such as the need to earn money and prestige, need for the academic, achievement, need for affiliation, aggression, etc. These non- biological needs are often said to constitute what is known as *personality dynamics*.

Personal conceptions

Under the trait of personal conceptions are included those methods which determine people's attitude toward self and others, a person's values, interests, etc.

Adjustment

Adjustment in psychology refers to the establishment of a satisfactory relationship representing harmony, conformance, adaptation or the like. It is a process of finding and adopting modes of behaviour suitable to the environment or the change in the environment. Adjustment is the process by which a living organism maintains a balance between its needs and the circumstances that influences the satisfaction of these needs. Adjustment includes traits like the freedom from emotional worries or instability and other related aspects of behaviour.

One general characteristic of these four types of traits is that they are correlated with each other, that is they are not independent. For instance, a social trait, say dominance, is likely to influence motives, personal conceptions (interests, attitudes) and adjustment. Similarly, an individual's motive is likely to influence the interaction of the person with others in society (social traits). It would also include the individual's personal conceptions and adjustment. To cite an example, let us say an individual is highly prejudiced against a particular caste (personal conception). In such cases, the individual's social interaction, motives, and adjustment all would be similarly affected. Likewise, if a person has a satisfactory general adjustment, That person's social traits, motives and personal conceptions would be in congruence with social norms. On the other hand, if an individual is maladjusted, s/he would have extreme social traits, eccentric motives and personal conceptions.

Self Assessment Questions

- 1) How does psychological assessment influence personality assessment?

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- 2) Discuss the meaning and purpose of personality assessment.

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- 3) Discuss the four broad types of traits which can be measured.

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1.5 TESTING AND MEASUREMENT CONCEPTS

Assessment techniques must meet four technical criteria before they can be considered scientifically acceptable measures of individual differences in people's enduring qualities. These criteria are standardisation, norms, reliability, and validity. Let us deal with each of these and understand what these terms mean.

1.5.1 Standardisation

A key concept in the measurement of personality dimensions is that of *standardisation*. This concept refers to the uniform procedures that are followed in the administration and scoring of an assessment tool. For instance, in self-report scale, the examiner must make every effort to ensure that subjects read and understand the printed instructions, respond to the same questions, and stay within any stated time limits. It also involves information (in the manual) about the conditions under which the assessment test should or should not be given, who should or should not take the test (sample group), specific procedures for scoring the test, and the interpretative significance of the scores.

1.5.2 Norms

The standardisation of a personality assessment test includes information concerning whether a particular "raw score" ranks low, high, or average relative to other "raw scores" on the test. Such information, called *test norms*, provides standards with which the scores of various individuals who take the test later can be compared. Usually, the raw scores on a test are converted into percentile scores, which indicate the percentage of people who score at or below a particular score. Thus, test norms permit the comparison of individual scores to a representative group so as to quantify the individual's relative rank standing to others.

1.5.3 Reliability

Any test whether personality or intelligence or aptitude etc., should have reliability and this should be demonstrated. Reliability means that repeated administrations of the same test or another form of test should yield reasonably the same results or scores. Thus, reliability refers to the consistency or stability of an assessment technique when given to the same group of people on two different occasions. This kind of reliability is termed as *test- retest reliability* (Anastasi, 1968) .

To determine test- retest reliability, the scores from the first administration are correlated with those of the second by a simple correlation procedure. The magnitude of resulting correlation coefficient gives us an estimate of the test's consistency over time. Although there are no fixed guidelines about acceptable levels of reliability, the reliability coefficients for most psychological tests are above +.70. The closer this statistic approaches +1.00, the more reliable the test is. In other words, when retested, people's scores should match their first scores quite closely.

A second kind of reliability is determined by splitting the test into two sets (e.g., odd-numbered items versus even- numbered items), summing people's scores for each set, and correlating the two sets of summed scores with each other. The correlation between these sets is termed *split- half reliability* and reflects the

test's internal consistency. If the composite set of test items is consistently measuring the same underlying personality dimension, then people who score high on odd items should also score high on even items, and people who score low on odd items should also score low on even items (again reflected in a high positive correlation) .

A third type of reliability is based on the correlation of two versions of the same test (made up of similar items) administered to same group of individuals. If the scores on these different forms are about the same, the test yields *reliability of parallel forms*. In such a case, the correlation of two parallel forms would indicate that the items on both tests measure the same thing.

Lastly, reliability also applies to the degree of agreement between two or more judges in scoring the same assessment test. This is called *inter scorer reliability*, and must be demonstrated whenever scoring involves subjective interpretations, such as those made by personologists examining projective data. Inter scorer reliability tends to be especially low with qualitative data in general, such as interview conversations, dream reports, and other open ended response formats that are not objectively quantified. But, agreement is increased when judges use manuals with explicit scoring rules and instructions for analysing such data (Yin, 1984).

1.5.4 Validity

Whether or not a test measures what it is intended to measure or predicts what it is supposed to predict, is known as validity. It is another significant concept in personality assessment. There are three main types of validity: (1) Content validity, (2) Criterion- related validity, (3) Construct validity.

To be *content valid*, an assessment tool must include those items whose contents are representative of the entire domain or dimension it is supposed to measure. For instance, a personality test measuring shyness, should actually reflect the personal (“Is your shyness a major source of personal discomfort?”), Social (“Do you get embarrassed when speaking in front of a large group?”), and cognitive (“Do you believe that others are always judging you?”) aspects of shyness. A content valid test would assess each of these components defining the construct of shyness. Content validity is almost entirely determined by agreement among experts that each item does in fact represent aspects of the variable or attribute being measured.

For *criterion related validity*, personality assessment is commonly undertaken for the purpose of making predictions about specific aspects of an individual's behaviour. For example, the behavioural criterion being predicted may include academic performance in management school, occupational success. The extent to which a test accurately forecasts some agreed- upon criterion measures determined by correlating subject's scores on the test with their scores on independently measured criterion. For instance, the criteria is success in management school as measured by management school grade point average (GPA). The Common Aptitude Test would be validated if it accurately predicted the criterion(management school GPA).

There are three types of criterion related validity.

- i) Predictive validity
- ii) Concurrent validity
- iii) Construct validity

Predictive validity involves determining the capacity of a test to predict some criterion behaviour in the future. For instance, an intelligence test has predictive validity if it accurately predicts subsequent performance in school.

Concurrent validity involves determining the extent to which a test correlates significantly with another currently derived test from a theory or existing criterion measure. For instance, if a person's scores on a test that measures paranoid tendencies is assessed by clinical psychologists, and the test also shows paranoid tendencies as was obtained in the interview, then we would say that concurrent validity exists. But the clinicians must not have prior knowledge of the patient's paranoid test scores. Otherwise, their ratings may be biased by their knowledge, a situation called criterion contamination.

Construct Validity: The third type of measurement validation, and the one most crucial to personality assessment as a whole, is called *construct validity*. The concept of construct validity addresses the question of how well a test measures something that, in reality, is but a useful abstract invention (Cronbach & Meehl, 1955).

The abstract nature of many psychological constructs such as self-actualisation, ego-identity, social interest, and repression, makes this approach complicated and results uncertain.

Construct validation is the process whereby evidence is gathered to demonstrate that a test measures a hypothetical construct. It is a laborious process requiring several studies that examine the correlations between test scores and measures assumed to be related to the construct in question.

Convergent Validity

In order to demonstrate that a test measures a construct, we can correlate test scores of the construct in question with scores from another test that purportedly measures the same construct. This procedure is known as *convergent validation* (Campbell & Fiske, 1959).

For instance, we have a new test that we think measures the construct of self-esteem. If our new test does measure the construct of self-esteem, it should correlate positively with another established and validated measure of self-esteem.

Also, if several different self-esteem measures agree with each other and with our new test, we have some evidence for the construct validity of our new test of self-esteem.

Divergent validity

Another way to demonstrate construct validity is to show the assessment tool does not correlate with measures of qualities that it was not intended to measure, particularly the qualities unrelated to the conceptual definition that the theorist

formulated. This aspect of the validation process is termed as *divergent validity* (Campbell & Fiske, 1959).

For instance, if our new self-esteem test does not correlate with measures of other, conceptually distinct qualities, we have evidence of discriminate validity (since our self-esteem measure is discriminated from non- self- esteem measures, as it should be). This is an important step in establishing the construct validity of an assessment technique.

Self Assessment Questions

1) What is meant by standardisation?

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2) What are norms? How are they established?

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3) What is reliability?

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4) What are the different ways in which reliability could be tested?

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5) What is Validity?

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6) What are the types of validity testing?

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7) Differentiate between convergent and divergent validity.

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1.6 LET US SUM UP

The ways in which people behave have always been of interest to significant others, as well as for whom the behaviour is likely to have direct consequences. Personality assessment involves systematic efforts to understand and predict behaviour of an individual. It has a long history, that can be traced from astrology, palmistry, biorhythms, and the like. Personality refers to the total functions of an individual who interacts with his environment. The purpose of the measurement of personality is to describe a person in terms of traits. And traits are referred as observed consistency of behaviour in an individual. Hence, personality measurement aims at studying the four broad types of traits, namely, social traits, motives, personal conceptions, and adjustment. Lastly, an assessment technique must meet four criteria before they can be considered scientifically acceptable measures of individual differences. These are standardisation, norms, reliability, and validity.

1.7 UNIT END QUESTIONS

- 1) Discuss the meaning and purpose of personality assessment.
- 2) Trace the historical development of personality assessment.
- 3) What is meant by standardisation? Discuss the important aspects related to standardisation.
- 4) Describe the four technical criteria to consider assessment technique as scientifically acceptable measure.

1.8 GLOSSARY

- Assessment** : The measurement of individual differences having to do with various personality traits.
- Concurrent validity** : Degree to which a test correlates with an independent measure of the same characteristics or variables obtained at the same time.

Construct validity	: Extend to which there is evidence that a test measures a particular hypothetical construct; involves validation of both the test and theoretically related characteristic that underlies it.
Content validity	: Degree to which a test includes items that is relevant to the variable being measured.
Convergent validity	: Degree to which a test correlates with another test that supposedly measures the same characteristics or construct in question.
Divergent validity	: The degree to which a test does not measure qualities it was not intended to measure.
Palmistry	: Determining of an individual's character by interpreting the various irregularities and the folds of the skin of the hand.
Predictive validity	: Degree to which a test can accurately predict some criterion related measure in the future.
Reliability	: The measurement of consistency or stability of a test (or other kind of measurement technique). The consistency of scores when a test is administered repeatedly to the same group of people is called test – retest reliability. The consistency of scores across items within a test is called split half or internal reliability.
Standardisation	: The use of uniform procedures in the administration and scoring of a psychological test.
Test norms	: Established standards of performance for a test (e.g., mean, median, and percentile).
Validity	: Degree to which a test measures what it aims to measure.

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UNIT 2 APPROACHES TO PERSONALITY ASSESSMENT (SELF-REPORT, PROBLEMS OF RESPONSE IN PROJECTIVE AND BEHAVIOURAL ASSESSMENT)

Structure

- 2.0 Introduction
- 2.1 Objectives
- 2.2 Self-Report Personality Tests (Inventory)
 - 2.2.1 Single Trait Tests
 - 2.2.2 Multidimensional Tests
 - 2.2.3 Strengths and Weaknesses of Self-report Tests
 - 2.2.4 Faking in Personality Inventories
 - 2.2.5 Measures to Avoid Faking
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- 2.3 Some Important Personality Inventories
 - 2.3.1 The Sixteen Personality Factors Questionnaire (16 PF)
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- 2.5 Behavioural Assessments
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 - 2.5.2 Situational Tests
 - 2.5.3 Weaknesses in the Behavioural Assessment Tests
- 2.6 Let Us Sum Up
- 2.7 Unit End Questions
- 2.8 Glossary
- 2.9 Suggested Readings and References

2.0 INTRODUCTION

Variety of assessment techniques is available to personologists in gathering information about people. They include questionnaire, ink blots, personal documents, behavioural assessment procedure, peer judgments, and what people reveal when asked questions about themselves. Each has specific strength and weakness regarding the kinds of responses obtained, scoring, interpretation, reliability, and validity. In this unit you will learn all about Self-Report Personality Tests (Inventory). What they are and how they are devised and administered. This unit will also discuss the merits and demerits of these self reports and would also indicate how these weaknesses could be overcome. In this unit you will also

learn some of the important self reports available . There will be another section in this unit that would discuss the projective techniques , its importance, merits and demerits, and the available tests of projective techniques. This will be followed by another section dealing with behavioural assessments and their importance, weaknesses and strengths.

2.1 OBJECTIVES

After reading this unit, you will be able to:

- Define and describe Self-Report Personality Tests (Inventory);
- Explain the Strengths and weaknesses of self-report tests;
- Analyse factors to overcome the weaknesses in self-report tests;
- Elucidate important kinds of self-report tests;
- Define and describe Projective Techniques;
- Explain the strengths and weaknesses of projective techniques; and
- Define and describe behavioural Assessments.

2.2 SELF REPORT PERSONALITY TESTS (INVENTORY)

Self-report inventories, also known as personality inventories are self rating questionnaires, where the individual describes own feelings, environment, and reactions of others towards self. In other words, on the self-report inventories a person reports about one's own self in the light of the questions (or items) given therein.. Hence, the method is known as a self-report inventory.

Self-report inventories are classified into five types, as given below:

- 1) Inventories that attempt to measure social and certain other specifies traits such as self confidence, dominance, extroversion, etc.
- 2) Inventories that attempt to evaluate the adjustment of the person to different aspects of the environment such as school, home, health.
- 3) Inventories that attempt to evaluate pathological traits.
- 4) Inventories that attempt to screen individuals into two or three groups.
- 5) Inventories that attempt to measure attitudes, interests, and values of persons.

Let us deal with the above five self report inventories one by one.

- 1) These are tests or inventories which attempt to measure social and other specific traits including self confidence, dominance, extraversion etc. Examples of such an inventory are that of Bernreuter Personality Inventory, Eysenck Personality Questionnaire, Differential Personality Scale etc.
- 2) These are inventories that try to evaluate the level of adjustment of a person to different aspects of one's life. For instance some of the adjustments that are studied here include adjustment to self, health, home and school. Example for such an inventory is Bells Adjustment Inventory.

- 3) These are Inventories that attempt to evaluate the pathological traits in an individual. Some of these try to evaluate a large number of traits of pathological nature, while some confine to a few pathological traits. For instance the MMPI (The Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory) tries to get at a very large number of pathological traits in addition to some normal traits. The 16 PF inventory attempts to evaluate 16 personality traits including 4 pathological traits. These pathological traits may include hysteria, paranoia, hypomania, depression, schizophrenia, etc.
- 4) These are inventories which attempt to screen individuals into two or three groups. The Cornell Index is the best example of such as inventory. The Cornell Index screens the persons into two groups - those having psychosomatic difficulties like asthma, peptic ulcer, migraine, etc., and those not having them that is, those who are normal.
- 5) These are Inventories that attempt to measure attitudes, interests, and values of persons. E.g., In regard to attitude we can give the example of Bogardus Social distance scale; in regard to interest inventory we can give the example of Strong Vocational Interest Blank, and in regard to values, we can give the example of Allport-Vernon Study of Values Scale.

This classification is based upon the purpose and the nature of item content. All the above self-report inventories are based upon same principle, which states that behaviour is nothing but the manifestation of trait and one can find out the presence or absence of a trait by means of assessing the behaviour. Self-report inventories are more widely used than any form of personality assessment. These are paper-and-pencil test that ask people to respond to questions concerning their traits, values, attitudes, motives, feelings, interests, abilities.

The term “self-report” refers to any information the person reveals directly about himself / herself by responding to specific questions or items with a limited number of prescribed choices (e.g. “Yes”, “No”, “Always”, “Don’t know”).

General feature of self-report test is standardisation of response alternatives. That is, people taking the tests have to select either true or false, agree or disagree, an alternative that varies from 1 (very characteristic of me) to 6, and so on.

In this manner, objectivity is achieved by restricting the degree of freedom people have in responding to test items.

Similarly standardisation of scoring procedures minimises the risk of personal bias of the persons scoring the tests.

Self-report inventories differ in regard to the number of personality dimensions they measure at one time.

2.2.1 Single-traits Tests

These are developed and used by researchers to measure some specific aspects of personality. They then examine whether people who score at the upper and lower end on the trait measure perform differently on the behavioural measure or differ on the self-report measure. In other words any person participating in the study may receive a high score (or may receive a medium or low score), but every person’s score is equally meaningful as a representation of that person’s personality.

Some single-dimension tests also provide separate measures of two or three traits. Examples of single-trait tests include

- a) the Locus of Control Scale (Rotter, 1966),
- b) the Sensation Seeking Scale (Zuckerman, 1978),
- c) the Self Monitoring Scale (Snyder, 1974).

The scores obtained from these tests are assumed to reflect relatively stable individual differences along specific trait dimensions. In addition to these scales, there are many self-report inventories that measure several personality dimensions simultaneously.

2.2.2 Multidimensional Tests

These *multi-dimensional tests* have the advantage of providing a more comprehensive overview of the person being assessed and are used extensively in clinical, counseling, and personnel settings. For instance the Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire (16-PF) is a 187-item test which measures 16 source traits of the normal personality identified by Raymond Cattell (1965). Scores derived from each of the source trait measures (e.g., submissive-dominant, trusting-suspicious) are plotted on a graph to provide a personality profile. This profile may be used by psychologist for counselling and to make important employment and promotion decisions about people.

2.2.3 Strength and Weakness of Self-report Tests

Assessment of individual differences is a significant aspect of personology. Much emphasis has been placed on self-reports as the basis for measuring the individual differences. The major advantage is that self-report tests provide more thorough, precise, and systematic information about an individual's personality than does casual information. The strengths of the self report inventories are given below:

- The objectivity of scoring minimizes personal or theoretical bias
- Also, self-report measures can be administered easily by someone with relatively little formal training.
- Self-report tests have greater reliability than do other assessment techniques.
- Finally, multi-dimensional inventories allow for measurement of several different personality traits at once.

Apart from the aforesaid, strengths, self report tests have some weaknesses.

The major limitations of self report tests are given below:

- They are susceptible to deliberate deception,
- There is considerable influence of social desirability,
- There is the influence of the response set (Kleinmuntz, 1982).
- Deliberate deception is most likely to occur when the person believes there is something to be gained from fraudulent responding (Furnham, 1990).

2.2.4 Faking in Personality Inventories

Let us understand how faking can occur.

A job applicant might “fake good” by intentionally agreeing with those items she/he believes will create favourable impression in an employment situation.

As well as, a person might also “fake bad” by intentionally answering items that she/he believes will create the impression of being more psychologically disturbed than is actually true.

This might occur in a situation where a person is being assessed to determine competency to face charges for a criminal offence.

Another way to fake is to respond to items in ways that make “look good”. This tendency is called *social desirability* and it is a problem that can occur in all assessment techniques, not only self-reports. In this, people who display social desirability bias may be unaware of their tendency to slant answers in a favourable direction as opposed to giving frank answers. They unintentionally present themselves in a favourable light that probably does not correspond to reality.

There are many strategies to detect or reduce the problem of social desirability response bias. For instance, MMPI includes questions intended to assess the likelihood that a respondent is giving socially desirable answers. Other tests are constructed to directly measure the extent to which people give self flattering responses. For instance, Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale (Crowne & Marlowe, 1964) is designed to measure the tendency of people to present themselves in a favourable light .

2.2.5 Measures to Avoid Faking

To overcome this problem, safeguards are to be built into tests to detect deliberate deception.

The MMPI, for instance, includes validity scales designed to indicate whether respondents are lying, defensive, or evasive when answering the test items.

Another option is to include filler items which can make the purpose of a test less obvious to a person. But these efforts may be only partially successful in detecting the extent to which a respondent is engaging in conscious deception. If possible, important decisions about a person should not be based on self-report data alone.

Another way to deal with the problem is to carefully evaluate the social desirability of each item before it is included in a test.

Lastly, in self- report measures, people have a tendency to respond in a particular way regardless of the content of the items. For instance, some people are more likely than others to agree with virtually every question on a test.

This *acquiescence response set* is a major problem on self-report measures that require a true- false or a yes- no answer (E.g.,MMPI).

If this response set is not counteracted in someway, the scores of highly acquiescent people will be distorted and not accurately reflect the personality traits. This problem is comparatively easy to counteract. Many test makers phrase the items so that true or false or yes or no responses are equally likely to be indicative of the trait being measured. Therefore, any bias coming from the tendency to respond “true” or “yes” is balanced when the test is scored.

2.2.6 Methods to Overcome Weaknesses in Self-report Tests

Distortions in the actual responses of self-report measures of personality are major problems for users of personality tests. Thus, it is essential that attempts

be made to overcome these distortions and make the self-report responses more representatives of the true responses. The following methods may be adopted for the purpose:

Method 1. Establishment of rapport

Distortions occur when the testees feel discomfort and find themselves in an unfriendly environment. It is essential that before actual administration of an inventory, the tester should make every effort to establish a warm and cooperative relationship called “rapport” with the testees. This relationship is dependent upon the skill of the testers skill and their ability to bring about a subtle modification of the testing situation. This will help in expressing the truth in an unhesitant way and thereby reducing the major proportion of distortion.

Method 2. Use of forced-choice technique

This technique has been used in controlling faking good or socially desirable response sets. In forced-choice items the subject is forced to choose between two or more than two equally desirable or undesirable terms or phrases or statements. The subject who wants to give socially desirable responses is outwitted by the forced choice between equally desirable statements.

Method 3. Concealing the main purpose of the test:

When the subjects do not know the real purpose of the test it becomes difficult for them to fake although in such a situation they may be more suspicious and defensive in their responses. Subjects may guess from the nature of the items, but they may be not definite that some inferences about their tendencies or traits are to be made and this will lessen the probability to fake.

There can be two ways to conceal the purpose. One method is to state such a plausible purpose of the test which is not the real purpose. For instance a personality test may be described as a test of ability, and if it appears so to the subject the faking is likely to be reduced to a great extent.

Another method of concealment is to insert information which is actually false among items of information which are actually true. For instance the subjects may be asked to endorse those titles of the book in the booklist which they have gone through. This list of titles will also contain some fictitious titles. The greater the number of endorsements of such fictitious titles, the higher the deceit.

Method 4. Use of verification and correction keys

Use of various kinds of correction and verification keys gives an indication whether or not the subject is projecting the true picture of the self. For instance MMPI uses four validity scores which aims at checking carelessness, evasiveness, misunderstanding and operation of other response sets.

2.3 SOME IMPORTANT PERSONALITY INVENTORIES

As mentioned earlier, the first attempt to measure personality through a questionnaire was made by Galton in 1880. He developed a questionnaire for studying mental imagery, that is inner world of perception and feeling.

Thereafter, the first systematic effort to develop a personality inventory was made by Woodworth in 1918. This inventory was known as Woodworth Personal Data Sheet and consists of 116 questions all relating to neurotic tendencies. The purpose was to screen out emotionally unfit men before they were sent overseas during the World War I. Since then a number of inventories have come into practice.

Using a statistical technique, called *factor analysis* that looks for groupings and commonalities in numerical data, Cattell discovered 16 source traits, and although he later determined there might be another seven source traits to make a total of 23 (Cattell & Kline, 1977), He developed his assessment questionnaire, namely,

2.3.1 The Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire (16 PF)

Cattell, (1995) devised a personality inventory based on just 16 source traits. These 16 source traits are seen as trait dimensions or continuums, in which there are two opposite traits at each end with many possible degrees of the traits possible along the dimension. For example, someone scoring near the reserved end of the reserved\ outgoing dimension would be more introverted than someone scoring in the middle or at the opposite end.

2.3.2 Neuroticism\Extraversion\ Openness Personality Inventory (NEO- PI)

This inventory is based on the five- factor model of personality traits that has been developed by Costa & McCrae.

2.3.3 Myers Briggs Type Indicator

Another inventory in common use is the *Myers- Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI)*. This inventory is based on the ideas of Carl Jung and looks at four personality dimensions, that is (i) Sensing/ intuition, (ii) Thinking/feeling, (iii) Introversion/ Extraversion (iv) Perceiving / Judging.

The sensing\ intuition(S\I) dimension includes people who prefer to rely on what they can see, hear, and so on through their physical senses (sensing) and, on its opposite end those who look for patterns and trust their hunches(intuition).

Sensing people are considered to be detail oriented, preferring to work only with the known facts, whereas intuitive people are more willing to use metaphors, analogies, and look for possibilities.

The Thinking\feeling (T\F) dimension runs from those who prefer to use logic, analysis, and experiences that can be verified as facts (thinkers) to those who tend to make decisions based on their personal values and emotional reactions(feeling).

Introversion\extraversion (I\E) is the same classic dimension that began with Jung, and is represented in nearly all personality theories.

Perceiving\ judging (P/J) describes those who are willing to adapt and modify decisions, be spontaneous, and who are naturally curious and to put off making a final decision so that all possibilities are covered (perceiving) as well those who are the opposite : the action- oriented, decisive, get the task done and look back type (judging).

These four dimensions can differ for each individual, resulting in 16(4 x 4) possible personality types: ISTJ, ISTP, ISFP, ISFJ, and so on (Myers- Briggs) is often used to assess personality to help people know the kinds of careers for which they may best be suited.

ISTJ (Introverted, Sensing, Thinking, Judgemental). ISTP (Introversion, Sensing, Thinking and Perceiving). ISFP (Introversion, Sensing, Feeling and Perceiving). ISFJ (Introversion, Sensing, Feeling and Judgemental).

2.3.4 Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventoryh (MMPI)

By far the most common personality inventory is the *Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory, Version II, or MMPI 2*, which specifically tests abnormal behaviour patterns in personality (Butcher & Rouse, 1996; Butcher et al., 2000, 2001).

This questionnaire consists of 567 statements such as “I am very often tense”. The person taking the test must answer “true”, “false”, or “cannot say”.

The MMPI has 10 clinical scales and 8 validity scales in addition to numerous subscales. Each scale tests for a particular kind of behaviour.

The behaviour patterns include relatively mild personality problems such as excessive worrying and shyness as well as more serious disorders such as schizophrenia and depression.

Validity scales, which are built into any well designed psychological inventory, are intended to indicate whether or not a person taking the inventory is responding honestly. Responses to certain items on the test will indicate if people are trying to make themselves look better or worse than they are, for example, certain items are repeated throughout the test in a slightly different form, so that anyone trying to “fake” the test will have difficulty in responding to those items consistently(Butcher et al.,2001). For example, if one of the statements is “ I am always very happy” and a person responds “true” to that statement , the suspicion would be that this person is trying to look better s/he really is. If several of the validity scale questions are answered in this way, the conclusion is that the person is not being honest.

There are also inventories in India. For example, Bengalee(1964) developed Multiphasic Personality Inventory, known as Youth Adjustment Analyser (YAA).The purpose of the inventory was to screen out maladjusted students from the college going students. Mohsin & Hussain (1981) adapted the Bell Adjustment Inventory in Hindi.

Self Assessment Questions

1) What do you mean by the term personality inventory?

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2) Describe Self Report Personality Tests

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3) What are single trait and Multidimensional tests?

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4) What are the various types of faking possible? Discuss the measures to overcome the same

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5) What are the weaknesses in self report inventories ? How are these overcome?

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6) What are the different kinds of personality inventories used to measure personality?

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7) Discuss the advantages and disadvantages of self- report measures.

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2.4 PROJECTIVE TECHNIQUES

Projective tests of personality are mainly designed to assist the clinical psychologist in diagnosing the nature and severity of a particular person's emotional disturbance. The rationale for these tests is based on Freud's theory that unconscious processes are important for understanding psychopathology.

The purpose of projective personality assessment is to uncover the person's unconscious conflicts, fears, and concerns. Frank (1939) coined the term *projective technique* to describe assessment methods that present people with ambiguous stimuli for which there is no obvious culturally defined to personality assessment, allow people to "project" upon ambiguous material their feelings, needs, attitudes, and ways of viewing life.

The responses elicited by the test stimuli (such as inkblots, vague pictures) reveal signs of pent up impulses, "ego defenses" and other "interior" aspects of the personality. All projective techniques have a set of common important features. They are as follows:

- They all use ambiguous or unstructured test stimuli.
- The test taker is never told the purpose of the test or how responses will be scored or interpreted.
- Instructions emphasise that there is no correct or incorrect answers and that the test taker is free to respond in any manner s/he sees fit.
- Scoring and interpretation rely heavily on subjective clinical judgements.

2.4.1 Classification of Projective Techniques

The classification of projective techniques has been recently provided by Lindzay (1959). Based upon the responses of the examinees, he has divided projective techniques into the following five categories, i.e., (i) Association technique (ii) Construction technique (iii) Completion technique (iv) Expressive technique (v) Choice technique. These are being explained below.

Association Technique

This category includes all those situations where the examinee is required to respond with the associations which are evoked in mind after seeing or listening to stimulus materials. E.g., the Rorschach test, the Holtzman Inkblot test and the Word Association test. The reaction time (the time elapsing between the presentation of the stimulus word and the response word) and the responses are analysed for studying personality.

Construction Technique

This category includes all those situations where the examinees are required to construct a story after seeing the stimulus materials (usually the picture) within certain specified time. No record is generally kept of time but the examinee's themes and mode of responding are considered relevant. For example, Thematic Apperception test, Children's Apperception test, Rosenzweig Picture Frustration test, The Blacky Pictures, The Object Relations test, etc. In all these tests the examinee is required to construct or produce simple statement or complex statements in the form of a story.

Completion Technique

These techniques include those situations where the examinee is presented with some incomplete sentences with the construction to complete them in any way he desires.

E.g., My sex life is
 I feel tense
 My ambition in life is
 I often get nervous when

Responses are given by the examinee are interpreted and analysed to find some aspect of the personality. But these methods lack a uniform and standard mode of analysis. E.g., Sack's Sentence Completion test, Madeline Thomas Completion Stories test.

Expressive Technique

This technique includes those situations where the examinee expresses his personality through some manipulative tasks, which usually involve some interaction with given materials. For example, play, drawing role- playing painting finger painting, etc. An important feature is that examiner pays much attention to the way or process by which the examinee manipulates the given materials. For example, the examiner may ask the examinee to play with a given set of dolls; he may pay attention to the process by which dolls are selected and handled during the play.

Also, in such techniques, significance is given to the process or way of handling the test materials rather than upon the end product of the process (such as the content or theme of the stories, etc.).

Choice Technique

Choice technique, also known as ordering technique, is not a projective in its true sense; rather may be regarded as a step towards objectifying the projective techniques (Kerlinger, 1973). The examinee is presented with some sets of pictures or items (which convey the different degrees of a trait) with the instruction to choose the most relevant and appropriate picture. Sometimes, he may be asked to order or rank those pictures in terms of his preferences, and thus, the name *ordering technique*. The choice of the items, becomes the basis for inference regarding one's personality. The Szondi test is an example of ordering technique because the examinees are required to rank set of pictures along a like-dislike dimension.

2.4.2 Strengths and Weaknesses of Projective Techniques

There are two unique strengths of projective tests. First, the testing stimuli are relatively ambiguous to people. As such, the person does not know how the test provides information to the examiner. This indirect method helps in disguising the real purpose of the test and it reduces the possibility that people will engage in intentional deception. Second, the indirect method used in projective tests allows circumventing conscious defenses, thus making them sensitive to aspects of personality that are hidden.

However some of the disadvantages include that projective tests are poorly standardised, in large part because there are no established methods of administration, scoring, and interpretation. In particular, the scoring of these tests often relies on the skill and clinical intuition of the examiner, thus making their reliability quite low.

Evidence suggests that extensive training in a specific scoring system leads to satisfactory levels of inter judge agreement(Goldfried, et al., 1971;Exner, 1986). A more serious problem concerns the interpretation of a person's scored responses to a projective test. Interpretation of such tests depends all too often on the personal insights and intuition of the clinician. There is also little convincing evidence to support the validity of projective tests (Aiken, 1984; Peterson, 1978). Therefore, psychologists are well advised not to base an entire diagnosis solely on projective tests. Projective tests should be considered in the context of other information obtained through interviews, case histories, and self- report tests.

Despite the aforesaid problems, many clinical psychologists continue to apply these methods as a means to explore a person's unconscious conflicts, fantasies and motives(Singer & Kolligian, 1987). They are more capable of revealing human personality in greater depth and detail than some of the personality inventories where considerable faking is possible. People have more faith in interpreting projective tests than personality inventories. A survey of the member of the Society for Personality Assessment found that Rorschach and TAT were ranked as second and fourth, respectively, in terms of usage among all psychometric instruments.

Self Assessment Questions

1) What do you mean by a projective test? Describe the same

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2) How are Projective tests classified?

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3) What are the strengths and weaknesses of projective techniques?

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- 4) Name some of the projective tests that are commonly used.

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2.5 BEHAVIOURAL ASSESSMENTS

Behaviourists do not want to typically “look into the mind” of an individual, because they assume that personality is merely habitually learned responses to stimuli in the environment, the preferred method for a behaviourist would be to watch that behaviour unfold in the real world.

2.5.1 Observation Technique

In direct observation, the psychologist observes the client engaging in ordinary, everyday behaviour, preferably in the natural setting of home, school, or workplace, for example. A therapist who goes to the classroom and observes that tantrum behaviour only happens when a child is asked to do something involving fine motor abilities (like drawing or writing) might be able to conclude that the child has difficulty with those skills and throws a tantrum to avoid the task.

Observation is the sine qua non of any approach to personality study. In some cases, hunches for research begin unsystematic observation. Personal observations often pave the way for more refined study of people’s behaviour.

Another way to learn about behaviour is to observe and record it as it naturally occurs (in real-life settings), but in a more systematic and rigorous manner than is evident in unsystematic behaviour. This is called *observation naturalistic*. The play and friendship patterns of children, antisocial behaviour in adolescents, eating behaviours of obese and no obese people, leadership styles of effective business managers, and many clinical phenomena have been investigated through naturalistic observation. Such naturalistic observation does not explain behaviour, but they are a rich source of information about what people do in their natural environments.

Naturalistic observation has some limitations also.

- 1) The main problem is that observers are often at the mercy of unpredictable events over which they have little or no control.
- 2) There are problems of observer bias and expectations influencing those aspects and events that are attended to and remembered.
- 3) The generalisation of observation based on a few people and situations, is questionable in regard to reliability and validity.
- 4) Finally, observers may unwittingly interfere with the actual events they wish to observe or record (Kazdin, 1982). Despite this problem, the advantage of naturalistic observation is obvious.

2.5.2 Situational Tests

One gets a sample of how people respond to their day-to-day situations amid friends and families without the contrived atmosphere of a laboratory or interview.

A situational test is a kind of compromise between a standardised test and observational methods of assessing personality. Personality traits are measured on the basis of observations of ratings of what a person thinks and does in a given situation, which resembles a real situation of everyday life. The subject has usually no idea that he is being studied. The situation represented by such tests is a social situation having opportunities for interaction with other individuals and especially designed to emphasise those aspects of personality which are under study.

The first situational test of personality was developed by United States Office of Strategic Services (OSS) during World War II to screen out men for military several reassignments. Situational tests are more suited to the measurement of traits like leadership, dominance, responsibility, extroversion-introversion, and the like.

Sometimes these tests utilise directly observable units of behaviour as the basis of assessment of the traits. Such situational tests are called *behavioural tests* because they are directly concerned with observable behaviour. For instance, honesty, self-control, and co-operation are such traits, related to character.

One of the first attempts to study these traits was made by Hartshorne, May & Shuttleworth (1930) in their Character Educational Inquiry (CEI). In general, CEI behavioural tests utilised natural situations lying within the day to day routine of a school child such as games, class room examination, etc. Children placed in these situations were not aware of the fact that they were being studied. The CEI tests were principally designed to measure behavioural traits like, altruism, honesty, and self control.

However, most of the CEI tests were concerned with measuring honesty among children by providing opportunity for cheating. These tests utilised different modes or techniques for studying honesty.

In one such technique called the *duplicating technique* the children were administered one of the classroom tests like the arithmetical reasoning test or the vocabulary test. A set of children's responses was duplicated, unknown to them. In the subsequent administration the original test is again given with a request to score their own responses with the help of a scoring technique. A simple comparison of the responses scored with the duplicated responses revealed whether or not the children had changed their responses in scoring, that is, whether they had cheated or not. Other CEI tests intended to measure honesty provided situations in which the person had an opportunity to lie or to steal something.

Situational tests represent real-life situations and therefore, their findings can be easily generalised to natural life situations, even though they have several important limitations.

Limitations

- 1) The situational tests are extremely time consuming, costly, and laborious techniques. They are time-consuming because ordinarily observations in

contrived situations last for several hours; they are costly because they demand the services of trained observers and they are laborious techniques because creating a real –life situation involves a good deal of labour on the part of the observers.

- 2) Subjectivity and bias may operate in the observation of a situational test. Observers, even if professionally trained, may not make a fair and objective observation because of certain bias towards the individuals to be observed. Likewise, other subjective elements may enter into the observation process. Although, an attempt is made to control such subjective elements, they cannot be completely eliminated because the observer is always a human being.
- 3) For increasing the reliability and validity of the observation made under situational tests, the experimenter gives emphasis on studying an isolated bit of behaviour. The problem arises as to what significance or meaning to such an isolated bit of behaviour can be attached.
- 4) Another limitation is concerned with ‘What to observe’. This is a problem in situational tests, which cannot be planned to study all behaviours of the individual. Only the limited behaviour should be selected for observation. In such a situation determination and selection of a meaningful set of behaviours to be observed is always an important problem.
- 5) Lastly, whether the observer should be kept visible or invisible is also a problem in most situational tests. If the group is small, the physical presence of the observer in the group may change what actually takes place in the group. How the observer can be fitted into such a setting is always a problem.

Other methods often used by behavioural therapists and other assessors are rating scale and frequency counts.

In a rating scale, a numerical rating is assigned, either by the assessor or the client, for specific behaviours (Nadeau et al., 2001). In a frequency count, the assessor literally counts the frequency of certain behaviours within a specified time limit. Educators make use of both rating scales and frequency counts to diagnose behavioural problems such as attention deficit disorder and aspects of personality such as social skill level through the various grade levels.

2.5.3 Weaknesses in the Behavioural Assessment Tests

Problems with these assessments can include the observer effect (when a person’s behaviour is affected by being watched) and observer bias, which can be controlled by having multiple observers and correlating their observations with each other.

As with any kind of observational method, there is no control over the external environment.

A person observing a client for a particular behaviour may not see that behaviour occur within the observation time.

All of the above described methods convey the full meaning about the traits to be assessed only when they are followed by other standardised tests. Merely on the basis of behavioural methods it is difficult to arrive at a particular conclusion.

Self Assessment Questions

- 1) What are the different behavioural assessment methods in assessing personality?

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- 2) Briefly discuss some of the weaknesses of behavioural assessments techniques.

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- 3) Discuss the observational tests and the situational tests.

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- 4) What are the advantages and disadvantages of observation and situation tests.

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2.6 LET US SUM UP

There are three most common tools or methods of personality assessment.

These tools are self-report inventories, projective techniques, and behavioural assessment method that include observation, rating scale, frequency count, and situational tests.

Personality inventories are typically developed by trait theorists and provide a detailed description of certain personality traits. They are objective tests rather than subjective tests.

The NEO-PI is based on five-factor model of personality, whereas Myers-Briggs Type Indicator is based on Jung's theory of personality types.

The MMPI- 2 is designed to detect abnormal personality.

Personality inventories include validity scales to prevent cheating, but such measures are not perfect and cheating is sometimes possible. Projective tests are based on the defense mechanism of projection and are used by psychoanalysts.

Projective tests include the Rorschach inkblot test and Thematic Apperception test. Projective tests can be helpful in finding starting points to open a dialogue between therapist and client but have been criticized for poor reliability and validity. Behavioural assessments are primarily used by behaviourists and include direct observation of behaviour rating scales of specific behaviour, and frequency counts of behaviour.

Behavioural assessments have the disadvantage of the observer effect, which causes an observed person's behaviour to change, and observer bias on the part of the person doing the assessment.

2.7 UNIT END QUESTIONS

- 1) Self-report measures are commonly used in personality assessment. Discuss some of the strengths and weaknesses accompanying self-report measures. Is it possible to overcome the weaknesses?
- 2) How do projective techniques differ from self-report test in the assessment of personality? Do projective tests have any advantage or disadvantage in comparison to self-report measures?
- 3) How can behavioural assessments be used in measuring personality?

2.8 GLOSSARY

Acquiescence	: A response set of tending to say "yes" or "no" to test item regardless of their content.
Direct observation	: Assessment in which the professional observes the client engaged in ordinary day-to-day behaviour in either a clinical or natural setting.
Frequency count	: Assessment in which a numerical value is assigned to specific behaviour that is listed in the scale.
Multidimensional tests	: Self-report personality that provide measures of several aspects of the respondents personality at once (e.g., MMPI).
Naturalistic observation	: Careful observation of behaviour as it occurs in real-life settings without direct intervention by the investigation.

- Projective techniques** : A class of psychological tests that ask people to respond to ambiguous stimuli in ways that may reveal their needs, feelings, and conflicts.
- Rating scale** : Assessment in which the frequency of a particular behaviour is counted.
- Self-report techniques** : Self –report tests in which the response format, administration, and scoring features are standardised.
- Single-trait tests** : Self-report tests that measure a specific trait of the respondent’s personality.
- Situational test** : Personality traits are measured on the basis of observations of ratings of what a person thinks and does in a given situation, which resembles a real situation of everyday life.
- Social desirability** : A tendency seen in some people to give socially acceptable answers to test items.

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UNIT 3 BEHAVIOURAL ASSESSMENT

Structure

- 3.0 Introduction
- 3.1 Objectives
- 3.2 Definition of Behavioural Assessment
 - 3.2.1 The Theoretical Model Underlying the Application of Behavioural Assessment Procedures
 - 3.2.2 Common Characteristics and Assumption of Behavioural Assessment Methods
 - 3.2.3 Advantages and Limitations of Behavioural Assessment
- 3.3 Functional Behavioural Assessment
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 - 3.3.2 Uses of Behavioural Assessment
 - 3.3.3 Types of Behavioural Assessment
 - 3.3.4 Process of Behavioural Change: Assessment, Treatment and Evaluation
- 3.4 Case Study Method
 - 3.4.1 Purpose of Case Study Method
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 - 3.4.3 Strengths and Weaknesses of Case Study Method
- 3.5 Interview Method
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- 3.6 Other Measures
- 3.7 Let Us Sum Up
- 3.8 Unit End Questions
- 3.9 Glossary
- 3.10 Suggested Readings and References

3.0 INTRODUCTION

In this unit we will be dealing with many methods which are behavioural in nature. This would include the case history method, followed by the interview method and other methods. As one deals with the case history method, we would also be dealing with the meaning and purpose of case history method. There are also many types of case histories which will be presented in this unit. While dealing with this method, the strengths and weaknesses of the method will also be put forward. The next method in behavioural assessment will be the interview method. Defining this method, the unit will be putting forward the meaning and purpose of this method and its use in different settings. Also the advantages and disadvantages of this interview method will also be discussed. Other measures such as the experience sampling and biological measures will also be discussed.

3.1 OBJECTIVES

After completing this unit, you will be able to:

- Define and describe behavioural assessment;
- Elucidate the categories of behavioural assessment;

- Explain what is functional behavioural assessment;
- Explain some of the advantages and disadvantages of the case history method;
- Elucidate the types of case history method;
- Define and describe interview as a method of assessment;
- Explain the meaning and purpose of the interview method;
- Elucidate the types of interviews; and
- Analyse other methods of assessment in the behavioural category.

3.2 DEFINITION OF BEHAVIOURAL ASSESSMENT

Behavioral assessment refers to assessing and measuring various constituents of a behaviour that are indicative of why a certain behaviour occurs and what causes that behaviour. These would include overt behaviours, feelings, and cognitions and their controlling variables that could be both from within the individual and outside of the individual. Behavioural assessment focuses on what a person does rather than on what a person has or is. It is also said that behavioural assessment is more an exploratory activity which tries to find out the range of procedures used to understand children, adults, groups etc. This definition emphasises a hypothesis-testing problem-solving model of assessment, the goal of which is to identify appropriate intervention strategies in order to remediate specified behaviour problems.

The history of behavioural assessment cannot be separated from behaviourism as a paradigm of scientific psychology and its clinical application. Thus, behavioural assessment began when complex human behaviours were first considered as a subject for scientific study (e.g., Staats 1963, Bandura 1969). Since the 1960s, four main phases have been identified.

As for the nature of behavioural assessment, it may be stated that its main goal has been behavioural change. Therefore, all conceptual and methodological features emerge from the attempt to define and measure a particular behavioural problem and its causal or controlling conditions and design the best treatment. The following five traits could be considered the essence of behavioural assessment: functional analysis, triple response modes and multi-causality, idiographism, multimethodism, and the experimental method.

3.2.1 The Theoretical Model Underlying the Application of Behavioural Assessment Procedures

The theoretical underpinnings of the above concept of behavioural assessment stem from the interaction between the person's previous learning and the external and organismic environments within which the person functions.

The setting in which the behaviour occurs is of primary importance. The biological makeup and physiological functioning help the individuals to adapt and respond to the environment. Evaluating behaviour requires assessment of the person, the setting, and the interaction between the two. Setting in this context refers to the environmental circumstances that might be influencing the occurrence and nonoccurrence of the behaviour. Environmental circumstances in turn refer to those environmental events preceding the behaviour, both immediately and distally, and those following the behaviour.

3.2.2 Common Characteristics and Assumptions of Behavioural Assessment Methods

While there is a wide variety of techniques available for carrying out behavioural assessment, they have certain features in common.

1) **They all focus on behaviour**

Both overt and covert behaviours are measured or evaluated as they occur in specific situations. Behaviours are observed at a specific time and in a limited location. The variables and concepts with descriptions of behaviour are taken up objectively, as assessment requires objective information, which is more useful than inferences or subjective interpretations.

2) **All behavioural assessment methods believe in Quantification**

Behavior is quantified so as to allow for reliable comparisons across time and persons and to allow for communication between persons. This leads to greater objectivity of information.

3) **All the behavioural assessment methods use trained, impartial observers**

Observers are trained in the use of the various measurement techniques of behavioural assessment, recording of the same and collecting information in an objective manner. Observers are expected to achieve a specified standard of consistency in their collecting data, recording the information and interpreting the data.

4) **All of them use empirically validated measures.**

It is important to have consistency in the measurement across situations. The measures should be empirically validated.

5) **All of them recognize errors and try to counteract the errors or minimise errors to the extent possible using statistical methods.**

All assessment involves differing degrees of error causing unreliability of the results. Hence it is important to minimize the errors and this is generally carried out through statistical techniques..

6) **All of these believe that the behaviour concerned occurs due to stimuli from the environment.**

Assessment is directed toward discovering the situational influences on behaviour. The emphasis is on public events and direct observation of behaviour in the natural environment, with behaviour being recorded at the time of its occurrence whenever possible.

7) **All these assessment techniques depend not on one but multiple sources of information.**

In addition to the behavioural assessment, a wide-range of assessment strategies are used, including behavioural interviews, checklists, rating scales, standardised instruments, self-reports, self-monitoring forms, and observations, as no single test or source could give adequate information as to why a behaviour occurs.

8) **All the behavioural assessment techniques ultimately place high emphasis on intervention.**

The primary purpose of assessment is not to categorise or label a person but to obtain information that will assist in developing effective intervention

strategies. The emphasis on intervention results in the application of the behavioural assessment model to the particular person, situation etc.

9) **All the behavioural assessment techniques use continuous assessment.**

Assessment is continuous throughout baseline, intervention, and follow up phases. The effectiveness of intervention strategies is continuously evaluated.

10) **Each of these behavioural assessment techniques emphasises on empirically based decision making process.**

Decisions about specific assessment strategies and interventions are based on empirical data available on the individual concerned from the person's self and the environment in which the person lives.

11) **Most of these behavioural assessment techniques focus on individual person rather than groups.**

Assessment focuses on the individual person rather than comparisons to a norm group. There is a recognition of individual differences in behaviour and its determinants, leading to idiosyncratic assessment and intervention.

12) **High emphasis is placed on individual differences.**

Individual differences among persons are not absolute. Differences must be seen in relative terms, with consideration given to situational and cultural differences. It must be kept in mind that a certain behaviour considered normal in one setting may be considered abnormal in another setting.

13) **All behavioural assessment techniques not only look for causes contributing to the problem but also try to solve the problem concerned, once the cause is known.**

The purpose of behavioural assessment is problem solving, and hence identification of causes is extremely important so as to devise intervention strategies to overcome the problem.

14) **All the behavioural assessment techniques focus on developing adaptive behaviour in the individual.**

The focus of behavioural assessment is on developing adaptive, positive, or desirable behaviour rather than on control and reduction of undesirable behaviours. Hence behavioural interventions should be designed and implemented with the benefit of the particular person concerned in mind.

3.2.3 Advantages and Limitations of Behavioral Assessment

Advantages

- Behavioral assessment provides objective data for deciding specific instructional content and strategies for intervention.
- Behavioural assessment leads directly to the formulation of intervention strategies.
- Behavioural assessment can be undertaken in the setting in which the concerned behaviour occurs or in simulated conditions resembling the natural setting.
- Behavioral assessment is tailored to the unique characteristics of the referred person and the targeted environment.

- The continuity of behavioural assessment facilitates determining the progress and evaluation of outcomes.
- Behavioural assessment has such variety of techniques that these help in multifaceted assessment.
- Most behavioural assessment techniques can be implemented by anyone with sufficient training and do not require advanced degrees.

Limitations of behavioural assessment

- Much of behavioural assessment methodology is not standardised.
- Differing levels of specification of the concerned behaviours may result in inconsistent data.
- Narrow definitions of behaviour may result in less consistency in behavioural observation.
- Behavioral assessment methodology may appear rather easy to apply. However if the psychologist or behaviourist is not trained in the techniques, the assessment will be defective and consequently the intervention will be ineffective.

3.3 FUNCTIONAL BEHAVIOURAL ASSESSMENT

A *Functional Behavioral Assessment (FBA)* is an attempt to look beyond the obvious interpretation of behaviour as “bad” and determine what function it may be serving for the individual. Truly understanding why the person behaves the way he or she does is the first step to developing strategies to stop the behaviour. The process usually involves documenting the individual’s behaviour in different situations, interviewing the family members and obtaining information about the behaviour of the individual, if necessary getting information from the work place regarding the behaviour of the individual and many other related sources. All these are done by a behavioural specialist, based on which the intervention plan is drawn.

Behavioural assessment provides information that typically cannot be obtained from traditional assessment but which is necessary for establishing effective remedial strategies and interventions for problems exhibited by individuals.

3.3.1 Reliability and Validity Issues in Behavioural Assessment

Reliability in behavioural assessment, refers to agreement between observers viewing the same behaviour at the same time (inter rater reliability), or a single observer observing the same behavioural sequence on different occasions. On the other hand validity in behavioural assessment refers to data obtained from one measure (e.g., classroom observation) being predictive of behaviour obtained through other measures (e.g., classroom achievement scores or teacher ratings) in different settings, under different conditions, at different times, or by different observers.

Multifaceted assessment is the rule in behavioural assessment, and each of the assessment procedures utilised should provide equivalent data (**convergent validity**).

Another important consideration with respect to validity in behavioural assessment is the extent to which information gathered through a multifaceted assessment leads to beneficial treatment outcomes (**treatment validity**).

3.3.2 Uses of Behavioural Assessment

Behavioural assessment is used in many situations and for many purposes, as for example screening, problem identification and analysis and for selection of a good intervention programme which will be effective in resolving the problem concerned.

The assessment continues even after the intervention is completed. Assessment at this point is important to know how far the intervention had been effective in resolving the problem for which the individual was assessed. Some of the issues on which the assessment will be done are given below:

- Has the treatment been administered as planned?
- Have changes in behaviour been monitored and documented?
- If change occurred, has it been demonstrated that it is due to the treatment?
- Have treatment costs been assessed and has it been decided whether the benefits are cost effective?
- Has a decision been made about modifying the treatment or maintaining treatment gains if desired outcomes have been achieved?

3.3.3 Types of Behavioural Assessment

Behavioural assessment can be of different types and some of which are given below:

- 1) Direct assessment
- 2) Analogue assessment
- 3) Indirect assessment
- 4) Idiographic assessment
- 5) Contextual assessment.

Let us discuss each of these in a little detail.

Direct assessment: Here the recording of a behaviour is done as it occurs in the situation.

Analogue assessment: This involves measuring of behaviour under simulated conditions as at times the behaviour may not occur in a natural situation.(e.g. role play)

Indirect Assessment: Here the behaviour is not observed but inferred through retrospective analysis.

Idiographic assessment: This describes the behavioural characteristics of the individual concerned. For example let us say a child with a disorder called Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder. Here the assessment is disorder focused.

Contextual assessment: The stimuli in the environment that cause the behaviour are in focus in this method of assessment.

The main tool of behavioural assessment is functional analysis.

Behavioural problems were to be defined through the triple response mode—motor, cognitive, physiological—and diverse potential causes—multicausality—were to be accepted.

For example, a person's depression should be defined through cognitive (feelings of loneliness, attention and concentration problems), physiological (sleep disturbance) and motor (low rate of social behaviours and physical activity) behaviours.

This problem can be explained functionally by several conditions of the subject, such as a reinforcement system deficit, inadequate motivational system (personal condition), or a dysfunction in biological conditions—and usually by the interaction of all of these factors.

Since behavioural problems should be described through the triple response mode, that is through motor, cognitive, physiological modes, other methods of assessment than observation of overt behaviour and other informants (than the subject) should be considered. In other words, multi methodism is one of the most important characteristics of behavioural assessment.

Behavioral assessment provides the basis for behavioural change, and behavioural change requires treatment, and treatment demands experimental manipulations and evaluation. This is why, throughout the history of behavioural assessment, the experimental method has been a constant among its basic characteristics.

3.3.4 Process of Behavioural Change: Assessment, Treatment, and Evaluation

One of the most important features of behavioural assessment is its role in behaviour modification or behavioural change. In order to change the behaviour, the first step is to make an assessment as to why a behaviour occurs as it is. Once assessment is made, the cause becomes known and one can formulate the treatment intervention and evaluate as to whether the intervention brought about the desired change.

Behavioural assessment has several challenges to face, it is presently applicable only in the clinical field. It has to be made applicable to other fields also. Behavioural assessment needs measurement instruments and improved measurement devices.

Assessment involves a process of decision-making that is well known in terms of the operations undertaken. Nevertheless, this process is not prescriptive. We might expect that in future standards or guidelines for the assessment process will be developed and supported by scientific associations. Not only disorders should be assessed but we must have assessment instruments that could measure normal behaviour and propose successful living.

3.4 CASE STUDY METHOD

The case study method is one of the important types of research method which is non-experimental or descriptive research. It is not a specific technique, but is one way of organising social data for the purpose of viewing reality. It tends to

preserve the unitary character of a social object being studied. It tends to examine a social unit as a whole. The unit may be a person, a family, a social group, a social institution or even a community (Good & Hatt, 1981; Best & Kahn, 1992).

The detailed study of a single individual's behaviour over an extended period of time is called a *case history or case study*. This approach is used frequently in clinical and medical settings in order to diagnose and treat people who have psychological problems.

As such, case histories usually deal with abnormal or troubled people whose lives are studied during psychotherapy or diagnosis (Runyan, 1982). The clinician seeks to achieve an understanding of the person's life experiences and behaviour patterns through a variety of procedures, including the person's own recollections, interviews with others who know the person, autobiographical and biographical documents, and any available information from psychological tests.

The clinician, usually searches clues in the past or present life to determine the causes of the person's difficulties. Case history provides a primary data enabling the clinician to establish effective strategies to treat emotional disorders. Fredrick le Play (1806-1882) had, for the first time, introduced case history method into social sciences research in the studies of family budgets. Herbert Spencer, an English sociologist (1820-1882) was the first to use the case materials in his ethnographic studies. William Healy, a psychiatrist, for the first time adopted the case study method in his work with juvenile delinquents.

Case histories made by clinicians working with patients have played an important role in the development of certain personality theories and clinical thinking in general. Freud's psychodynamic theory is almost entirely based on intensive study of single cases. Freud and his fellow psychoanalysts spent years probing deeply into all sorts of behaviour: early childhood recollection of dreams, fantasies, physical illnesses, love-hate relationships. Along with gaining rich insights into the uniqueness of persons, Freud used case studies to support his theoretical claims. Carl Rogers also relied heavily on case studies of psychotherapy clients in formulating his phenomenological approach to personality.

3.4.1 Purpose of Case Study Method

The purpose of the case study method is to understand the important aspects of the life cycle of a unit. Case study analyses deeply and interprets the interactions between the different factors that influence the change or growth of unit. Thus, it is a basically a longitudinal approach which studies the units over a period of time. A review of literature in this field suggests that case studies are not confined to the study of individuals and their important behavioural characteristics, rather, case studies have been made of all types of communities and of all types of individuals. Whatever the type of individual or community is, the element of typicalness, rather than uniqueness, is the focus of attention in case study.

Though case study is a detailed description and analysis of a particular individual's personality, it is also an immensely important research strategy. A single case-study suggests a deep insight about human behaviour, but usually one case does not provide a firm basis for deriving general principles of behaviour. However, if a number of case studies are accessible for scrutiny, researchers may be able to identify threads of consistency among them and draw some general conclusions.

The case study method may also be used to study the lives of normal individuals. A group led by Henry Murray (Murray et al., 1938) at the Harvard Psychological Clinic provides a rare but compelling model for the intensive study of individual lives over a substantial period of time. The Harvard “personologists” focused on in depth assessments of a small group of college males. The objective was to learn about the basic needs, conflicts, values, attitudes, and patterns of social interaction evident among these young men. The assessment techniques included several self-report personality questionnaires and projective tests administered at different times. In addition to this, assessment of these students involved gathering extensive biographical data and autobiographical sketches, putting them into small-scale experiments, and conducting stress interviews where they were focused to answer embarrassing questions or were challenged to defend some of their deeply held values. Finally, the students were studied in small group settings so that the observers could ascertain their public styles of interpersonal interaction.

The methods used by Murray and his colleagues covered many topics and facets of each student’s life and produced a rich narrative account of each student as a whole in his natural setting. To better assess each student’s thoughts, feelings, and actions, Murray assembled a group of experienced psychologists who shared their insights of each student at a staff conference or “diagnostic council”. In this council, different researchers from different background who had studied the same student would offer their respective clinical impressions about the student. Debate followed and eventually a conclusion about how best to characterise the student’s personality was reached by majority vote.

The eclectic approach adopted by Harvard personologists to the study of personality influenced an entire generation of researchers by directing their attention to the whole person, to the importance of environment, and to the need for comprehensive assessment. Robert White’s *Lives in Progress* (1975), a longitudinal study of three relatively normal individuals, illustrates the importance of the case history as a strategy well-suited for conducting personality research.

3.4.2 Types of Case Study Method

Based upon the number of individuals, the case study may be of two types – the *individual case study*, and the *community case study*. In individual case study the social unit consists of one individual or person. Since there is only one individual involved, it emphasises analysis in depth. Such an individual case study is significant in developing some hypothesis to be tested but is not helpful in making broad generalisations. The community case study is one in which the social unit is not a person, rather, a family or social group. Such case study is a thorough observation and analysis of a group of people who are living together in a particular geographical territory. The community case study tries to deal with different elements of the community life such as location, prevailing economic activity, climate and natural resources, historical development, social structure, life values, health education, and the like.

On the basis of the purpose a case study may be subdivided into two categories- *deviant case analysis* and *isolated clinical case analysis*. In the former, the researcher starts with the difference already found between two people or groups of persons and his task is to read backward to deduce the condition that might have produced the difference (Warwick & Osherson, 1973).

In the latter, the emphasis is upon the individual units with respect to some analytical problem. Such study is popular in psychoanalysis. Freud's study of little Hans is a well-known case which can be cited as an example of isolated clinical case analysis. Freud's theories of psychoneurosis were formulated through accumulation of many isolated clinical case studies of the individuals.

3.4.3 Strengths and Weaknesses of Case Study Method

The advantage of case study method is that it provides an account of the complexities and idiosyncrasies of an individual's personality that is not possible from other strategies. If the goal is to study processes going in one or few persons and to learn how persons cope with life experiences, then case history is the most appropriate strategy. Also, case histories are the only way rare instances of a phenomenon can be studied.

But one should also keep in mind the shortcomings encountered while studying only one individual. The chief disadvantage of case studies is that the researcher can never be totally certain about cause-and-effect relationships. Researchers cannot control factors that might affect the events or outcomes that they observe; it is always possible that causes other than those they infer may be operating. Second, because a case study examines only one person, its results have limited generalisability. Just because one person behaves in a certain way does not mean all people behave that way. Third, the data obtained by the case history method may be retrospective or second-hand in nature and thus distorted by time. Lastly, even if the accuracy of such data can be verified, the conclusions drawn about the individual may reflect the personal biases of the investigator.

Despite these shortcomings, case histories can be rich source of information about a particular phenomenon. In fact, case study can be considered as a preliminary research strategy that can offer intriguing hypothesis about human personality. Researchers can then examine these hypotheses with more rigorous experimental procedures.

Self Assessment Questions

- 1) Define case history method.

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- 2) Give a general overview of the merits and demerits of case history method.

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3.5 INTERVIEW METHOD

3.5.1 Meaning and Purpose of Interview Method

The interview is one of the oldest and most widely used methods of collecting information about persons. In the interview, the personologist obtains information from the person being evaluated by asking relevant questions and listening to answers. The interviewer and respondent engage in a face-to-face dialogue for the purpose of achieving a specific goal. In fact, the way in which an interview is conducted depends on the particular objective or goal in question. An employment interview, for instance, seeks to assess the personality characteristics of the job applicant.

A research interview aims to gather information about a person concerning a specific research topic under investigation. A clinical interview has its goal the diagnosis of a patient's problem and the type of therapy technique that may be most appropriate for the given diagnosis. Interviews are also used to measure specific aspects of personality.

Psychoanalysis uses one type of interview to probe supposedly underlying aspects of personality. But in modern research special types of interviews, in which individuals are asked questions assumed to be related to specific traits, are often used instead. For instance, interviews are used to measure the *Type A behaviour pattern*, an important aspect of personality related to personal health. Persons high on this pattern are always in a hurry and they hate being delayed. Thus, questions asked during the interview focus on this tendency; for instance: "What do you do when you are stuck on the highway behind a slow driver?"

There is a variety in the degree to which interviews may be *structured* or *unstructured*. In the former type of interview, questions are carefully worded and skillfully presented in a prescribed order. For instance: "How long have you been married?" "How many children do you have?" "Do you believe that children should be allowed to do whatever they want?" "If you had a teenager would you allow him or her to quit school and take a part time job?" As you can see, the most personal and threatening questions appeared last.

The strategy behind asking general and innocuous questions first is that they should be at least threatening for respondents and pave the way for divulging more intimate more information once they have developed a sense of trust toward the interviewer. (White & Speisman, 1982).

In an unstructured interview, questions are framed in such a way as to allow the person considerable latitude in responding. The interviewer may say, "You feel that your spouse really lets you down," or "That must have been a very stressful experience." The respondent is free to reveal whatever information s/he desires to such questions. In turn, the interviewer may abandon a certain line of questioning if it seems to be generating no useful information and some other area of questioning. Compared to a structured interview, an unstructured interview allows the personologist more flexibility to probe the respondent's thoughts and feelings in the context of give-and-take exchange.

3.5.2 Strengths and Weaknesses of Interview Method

Interview method when used by a highly skilled interviewer can produce extremely valuable information regarding the individual's personality and life situations. The ability to communicate effectively with others, perceptions of self and significant others, level of anxiety, plans for future, and job satisfaction are a few examples of data that can be obtained from a well conducted interview.

A well planned interview can also be profitably used in hypothesis testing research. At the same time, issues of reliability and validity may arise in the event that respondents are free to say about their past and present life experiences. Structuring the kinds of questions asked of the person is one way to make interview information more valid and reliable. That is why the structured format tends to be preferred in the research setting, whereas the unstructured format tends to be preferred by clinical psychologists in the therapeutic setting.

The interview technique provides a rich source of personality data. But such data is highly subjective and may reflect the theoretical biases of the interviewer. Also, the impact of the of the interviewer's personality can subtly influence how truthful and disclosing the person will be in an assessment setting. This can result in the withholding or distorting of information vital to the purpose of an interview.

Lastly, an assessment interview, especially when supplemented by more objective sources of data, is one the most basic and indispensable of all assessment techniques.

Self Assessment Questions

- 1) Differentiate between structured interview and unstructured interview as a measure of personality assessment.

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- 2) What are some of the advantages offered by interview method?

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3.6 OTHER MEASURES

Apart from the above cited methods, there are also other less significant techniques existing to assess personality.

- i) **Experience sampling method:** With the advent of electronic pagers now allows researchers to beep individuals at random or pre-established times during the day in order to obtain descriptions of their behaviour at these times? This *experience sampling method* (Stone, Kessler, & Haythornthwaite, 1991) can often reveal much about stable patterns of individual behaviour; and these constitute an important aspect of personality.
- ii) **Biological measures:** In recent years several *biological measures* of personality have also been developed. Some of these use positron emission tomography (PET) scans to see if individuals show characteristic patterns of activity in their brains- patterns that are related to differences in their overt behaviour. Other measures focus on hormone levels, for instance, the question of whether highly aggressive persons have different levels of certain sex hormones than other persons. Some results suggest that this may indeed may be the case (Harris et al., 1996).

It may be concluded that there are many tools for measuring personality. None are perfect, but together they provide psychologists with many useful techniques for investigating the stable patterns of behaviour that make each of us a unique human being.

3.7 LET US SUM UP

The case study or case history method seeks to provide an in-depth account of an individual's personality. Its primary focus is to diagnose and treat a person's suffering from emotional problems. Also, case histories have played a role in the development of certain personality theories and the study of normal persons over many years.

Several assessment techniques may be used in conducting a case history, including biographical and autobiographical sketches, personality and projective tests, interviews, and information provided by others who know the person reasonably well. Although case histories are valuable source of insights about people, several shortcomings faced in studying one person at a time were noted.

Case histories do not identify factors that might cause the events observed, the results obtained are of limited generalisability, and the data collected may be subject to personal bias and difficult to verify in terms of accuracy.

Principal features of unstructured and structured interviews are that in the former, the interviewer can "dig deeper", and get a deeper understanding of the respondents questions. While in the latter, there is a systematic procedure for collecting information and hence, the reported validities of such interviews is greater than the former type of interviews.

The other measures of personality assessment that the psychologists are currently using are experience sampling and biological measures.

3.8 UNIT END QUESTIONS

Describe the case history method for assessing personality. What are some of the strengths and limitations of case history method?

How does structured interview differ from unstructured interview? Point out the major sources of error in interview.

Briefly describe the current methods being used by psychologists for personality assessment.

What other measures of personality do psychologists currently use?

3.9 GLOSSARY

- Case study method** : Research strategy whereby a particular person is studied in great detail.
- Hypothesis** : A single prediction about the relationship between two or more variables that is logically derived from a theory.
- Structured interview** : An interview that follows a set format, thus allows a person little or no freedom to digress from the information sought by the interviewer. An unstructured interview, by contrast, allows the person maximum freedom to divulge information in a more spontaneous manner.

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UNIT 4 OTHER MEASURES OF PERSONALITY

Structure

- 4.0 Introduction
- 4.1 Objectives
- 4.2 Self-Report Questionnaires and Inventories
 - 4.2.1 Minnesota Multi Phasic Personality Inventory (MMPI)
 - 4.2.2 Millon Clinical Multiaxial Inventory (MCMI)
 - 4.2.3 NEO- Personality Inventory (NEO-PI)
- 4.3 Ink Blot Tests
 - 4.3.1 Rorschach Psycho-diagnostic Test
 - 4.3.2 Holtz Ink Blot Test
- 4.4 Apperception Test (TAT)
 - 4.4.1 Thematic Apperception Test (TAT)
 - 4.4.2 Senior Apperception Test (SAT)
 - 4.4.3 Children Apperception Test (CAT)
- 4.5 Let Us Sum Up
- 4.6 Unit End Questions
- 4.7 Glossary
- 4.8 Suggested Readings and References

4.0 INTRODUCTION

In this unit we will be discussing other measures of personality assessment. Self report questions and inventories are of great importance in personality assessment. These are being taken up in terms of definition and description of such tests and inventories and also we will be presenting the three important and major tests in this field namely MMPI, MCMI and NEO-PI. Following you will learn in this unit some of the major projective tests. In fact projective tests are extremely important to understand the psychodynamics involved in the person's behaviour. Many times we cannot get the needed information through interviews because of the inhibitions on the part of the person or client. In such cases projective tests are used which help the person to project his or her feelings on to the stimulus material, picture or ambiguous stimuli. In this category of Projective tests we will be presenting the Rorschach test and the Holtzman Inkblot tests. In this category of tests you will also learn the test named Thematic Apperception Tests both for adults and children.

4.1 OBJECTIVES

After going through the following unit, you will be able to:

- Define and describe self report inventories;
- Describe the MMPI, MCMI and NEOPI;
- Define projective tests;

- Explain the Rorschach test;
- Differentiate the two ink blot tests;
- Explain apperception; and
- Describe tests related to apperception such as the TAT and CAT.

4.2 SELF-REPORT QUESTIONNAIRES AND INVENTORIES

One way of measuring personality involves asking individuals to respond to a self-report inventory or questionnaire. Such measures (also known as objective tests of personality) contain questions or statements to which individuals respond in various ways.

Now we will examine the most extensively used and researched multidimensional test, used by psychologists to evaluate the diagnostics status of clients as well as to make personnel decisions about people.

4.2.1 Minnesota Multi Phasic Personality Inventory (MMPI)

The most widely used multi-trait self-report test is the MMPI. It was originally devised by Hathaway and McKinley (1943) to aid clinical psychologist in the diagnosis of psychological disorders. The developers believed that this test would be useful in evaluating the effectiveness of psychotherapy. They used an empirical strategy to construct MMPI. They administered hundreds of true-false items to several groups of people in mental institutions who had been diagnosed as having certain psychological disorders. These diagnoses have been determined through psychiatric interviews with the patients. By systematically carrying out empirical procedure on patient group with different psychiatric diagnosis, the test developers established 10 separate “clinical scales”. The test also had 4 “validity scales” that assess whether the person was careless, deceptive, or misunderstood the instructions in taking the test. The “lie scale”, for instance indicates the extent to which a person response in a socially desirable but untruthful way to statement in order to be viewed in a favourable manner (“I can't remember ever having a bad night's sleep”).

An updated and restandardised version of MMPI was established in 1989. It is known as MMPI 2. This test has 567 items, as they were in the original inventory but is different in a number of ways. Items with sexist wordings and outmoded content have been modified, items with objectionable content have been eliminated, and national norms that are more representative of the present population have been calculated. These significant modifications have enhanced the value of MMPI 2 and make it preferable over the original version of the test.

Two general approaches are used when interpreting MMPI data and these are:

- i) clinical and
- ii) actuarial.

In *clinical interpretation* an expert inspects each of the scale scores, notes the features of the profiles (clustering of certain high scale scores), and adds a mix of personal experience about individuals of each profile type to make inferences regarding the pathological problems and traits of the person.

When an *actuarial interpretation* is made, the psychologist (or computer) merely checks MMPI atlas that provide empirically established characteristics which describes each profile, class or code type.

The process of comparing the profile of a person with a large number of previous profile yields to an interpretation based on statistical base rates and norms (without an subjective evaluation by the psychologist).

Matching the person's profile with previous MMPI test takers also enables the clinician to determine the appropriate diagnostic category and course of therapy to be undertaken.

MMPI is by no means limited in usage to the clinical setting (Kunce and Anderson, 1984). It is also used to determine whether individuals have personality attributes that are either compatible or incompatible with a demand of a job for which recruitment is being made.

The MMPI has also been used extensively in studies concerning family dynamics, eating disorders, substance abuse, suicide, and readiness to intervention for rehabilitation (Butcher and Keller, 1984). It has also been one of the main sources of item for a number of other personality tests like Taylor Manifest Anxiety Scale (Taylor, 1953), the Jackson Personality Inventory (Jackson, 1974), and the California Psychological Inventory, etc.

Finally, MMPI has been translated into 125 foreign languages is a testimony to its popularity and value as a clinical assessment technique (Butcher, 1984).

4.2.2 Millon Clinical Multiaxial Inventory (MCMI)

Another objective measure of personality is the Millon Clinical Multiaxial Inventory (MCMI) (Millon, 1987, 1997). Items of this test correspond more closely to the categories of psychological disorders currently used by psychologists than those on the MMPI. This makes the test especially useful to clinical psychologists, who must first identify individual's problems before recommending specific forms of therapy for them.

The recent third edition development of the MCMI-III adds the Grossman Facet Scales, a series of therapy guiding facet subscales, to the basic personality scales of the instrument. These facet scales identify the most salient clinical domains (e.g., interpersonal, cognitive) that characterise the patient taking the inventory. This information helps "personalise" and further "individualise" the MCMI test results by specifying those features that call for the therapist' attention in what is called "personalised therapy". But first, a few words about the basic MCMI-III and what distinguishes it as a clinical instrument.

The MCMI™ (Millon™ Clinical Multiaxial Inventory) is distinguished from other inventories primarily by its brevity, its theoretical anchoring, multiaxial format, tripartite construction and validation schema, use of base rate scores, and interpretive depth.

Each generation of the MCMI inventory has attempted to keep the total number of items small enough to encourage its use in all types of diagnostic and treatment settings, yet large enough to permit the assessment of a wide range of clinically relevant multiaxial behaviours.

At 175 items, the MCMI inventory is much shorter than comparable instruments. Terminology is geared to an eighth-grade reading level. The inventory is almost self-administering. The great majority of patients can complete the MCMI-III™ in 20 to 30 minutes, facilitating relatively simple and rapid administrations while minimizing patient resistance and fatigue.

Description: Based on Millon's theory of personality and psychopathology, the brief Millon Clinical Multiaxial Inventory-II (MCMI-II) instrument provides a measure of 22 personality disorders and clinical syndromes for adults undergoing psychological or psychiatric assessment or treatment. Specifically designed to help assess both Axis I and Axis II disorders, the MCMI-II instrument can assist clinicians in psychiatric diagnosis, developing a treatment approach that takes into account the patient's personality style and coping behaviour, and guiding treatment decisions based on the patient's personality pattern.

Scoring: The MCMI-II consists of 10 clinical personality pattern scales, 3 severe personality pathology scales, 6 clinical syndrome scales, 3 modifier indices, 1 validity index.

Reliability: The reliability of the MCMI II generally has been sound, with the Axis II scales showing the highest stability as predicted by Millon. Normal subjects also had noticeably higher stability coefficients than clinical subjects. Millon also tested the stability of high point and double-high-point configurations. He reports that high point codes are fairly stable over a month, with nearly two thirds of 168 subjects achieving the same scale high point. For double-high-point configurations, 25% achieve the same high scores with another 19% achieving the same two scales but in reverse order. Based on part of his normative sample, Millon reports quite high internal consistencies. The average of 22 clinical scales is .89, and the range is from .81 to .95.

Validity: Because of extensive item overlap, we cannot be sure of the factor structure of this instrument. But there are also overlaps based on the overlap of the constructs; that is, the personality disorders are by no means distinct entities.

Norms: Norms for the MCMI-II instrument are based on a national sample of 1,292 male and female clinical subjects representing a variety of DSM-III and DSM-III-R diagnoses. The subjects included inpatients and outpatients in clinics, hospitals, and private practices. The MCMI-II manual describes the distribution of gender, age, marital status, religion, and other factors within the sample.

The MCMI-II is used primarily in clinical settings with individuals who require mental health services for emotional, social, or interpersonal difficulties.

4.2.3 NEO- Personality Inventory (NEO-PI)

A third objective test, the NEO-Personality Inventory(Costa & McRae,1989), is used to measure aspects of personality that are not linked to psychological disorders. Specifically, it tends to measure the "big five" dimensions of personality, as these dimensions appear to represent basic aspects of personality.

The NEO-PI is a highly-regarded assessment of personality. Based on the Five-Factor model, the NEO PI-R measures the interpersonal, motivational, emotional, and attitudinal styles of adults and adolescents. It consists of 240 personality

items and 3 validity items, and is available in two forms. Form-S is designed for self-reports and Form-R is written in the third person for observer reports.

The NEO PI-R was designed to provide a general description of normal personality relevant to clinical, counseling and educational situations. NEO PI-R items and materials were designed to be easily read and understood. The five domains (factors) measured by the NEO PI-R provide a general description of personality, while the facet scales allow more detailed analysis. These five factors and their facet scales include:

Neuroticism (Anxiety, Hostility, Depression, Self-Consciousness, Impulsiveness, Vulnerability)

Extraversion (Warmth, Gregariousness, Assertiveness, Activity, Excitement-Seeking, Positive Emotions)

Openness to Experience (Fantasy, Aesthetics, Feelings, Actions, Ideas, Values)

Agreeableness (Trust, Modesty, Compliance, Altruism, Straightforwardness, Tender-Mindedness)

Conscientiousness (Competence, Self-Discipline, Achievement-Striving, Dutifulness, Order, Deliberation)

Reliability and Validity

Internal consistency coefficients range from .86 to .95 for domain scales, and from .56 to .90 for facet scales. Stability coefficients ranging from .51 to .83 have been found in three-year, six-year, and seven-year longitudinal studies of the original NEO-PI factors. The NEO PI-R has been validated against other personality inventories and projective techniques.

Use of NEO PIR

This test can be effectively used in counseling and clinical settings with adults as well as senior high school and college students. It is also very effectively used in business and industrial settings. This test is used in Psychological research, including studies in sport psychology and recreation.

Self Assessment Questions

1) Name some important personality inventories.

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2) How is MMPI-2 different from original MMPI?

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3) Briefly describe NEO-PI.

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4.3 INK BLOT TESTS

These are psychological tests in which a subject's interpretation of inkblots is analysed. This test is used in clinical psychology and psychiatry. The inkblots are used to determine what a person perceives in the highly ambiguous shapes.

4.3.1 Rorschach Psychodiagnostic Test

Swiss psychiatrist Hermann Rorschach first published the inkblot test in 1921. Rorschach displayed interest in inkblots from a young age and eventually developed a way to use them for psychological assessment.

Hermann Rorschach was born in Zurich, Switzerland, on Nov. 8, 1884. As a child, Rorschach earned the nickname "Kleck" due to his love "klecksography," a popular game among Swiss children that involved dropping ink on a piece of paper, and then folding the paper in 1/2 to create interesting designs.

Rorschach was an excellent student and ultimately became interested in psychiatry. He graduated in Medicine and worked under notable Swiss psychiatrists, Eugen Bleuler and Carl Jung. After graduation, Rorschach worked at various psychiatric institutions in Switzerland and Russia. He continued to develop his interests in psychoanalysis and Art therapy.

By 1911, Rorschach noticed that children playing klecksography varied widely in their inkblot interpretations. He then began informally studying how the mentally ill interpreted inkblots. Although others before him, such as Leonardo da Vinci, Justinus Kerner and Alfred Binet, had also experimented with inkblots, Rorschach was the first to develop a system to make the interpretation of inkblots a useful tool for psychological analysis.

During the inkblot test, the examinee is shown a series of 10 inkblots and asked to describe what he sees. It is assumed that the examinee will project his own personality and emotions onto the ambiguous picture, providing the examiner with insight into his unconscious mind.

Rorschach's set of 10 inkblots was first published in 1921 in a book entitled "Psychodiagnostik." His peers were skeptical about the ability of inkblot interpretation to assess personality accurately. Responding to this criticism, Rorschach continued his efforts to standardise testing procedures to make his inkblot test a useful psychological tool. However he could not see the use of this test as he died in 1922.

Reliability and validity

After Rorschach's death, at least 4 others attempted to standardise inkblot test administration. However, this only resulted in further confusion and inconsistency. In the late 1950s, American psychologist John Exner developed what became known as Exner's Comprehensive System, which consolidated these different approaches into one universal procedure.

Current Use

The Rorschach inkblot test continues to be the most popular projective test used today. However, critics of the inkblot test argue that the interpretation of an examinee's responses is highly dependent on the examiner's own personal judgment, and therefore not likely to be reliable among examiners. Alternatively, others contend that with proper use and training, the Rorschach can be reliably interpreted and therefore remains a useful psychological instrument.

The Rorschach Plates

The stimulus materials for the Rorschach Psychodiagnostic Technique which was published originally in 1921, are ten 5 ½ by 9 ½ inch cards. Each card contains one bilaterally symmetrical, black-and-white (five cards), red-and-grey (two cards), or multicolored (three cards) ambiguous figures in ink blot against a white background. The cards are presented individually and viewed at no greater than arms length, but turning the card is permitted.

Examinees are told to report what they see in the report or what it might present. After all the cards have been presented the examiner may start over with card one and ask the examinee what features (shape, color, shading and so on) of the card determined the responses of the subject. Following this *enquiry* period, there may be a further period of *testing the limits* to discover whether the examinee can see certain things in the card.

A number of scoring methods for the Rorschach have been proposed, the most recent being Exner's (1991, 1993) comprehensive system. Every response given to a blot may be scored on several categories as given below.

Location : where it was seen-the whole blot(W), a common detail(B), an uncommon detail(Dd), or, if the white space on the card was used, WS, DS,or DdS.

Determinant : what aspect of the blot determine the response-form (F), color(C), shading-texture(T), shading-dimension(V), shading-diffuse(Y), chromatic color(C), achromatic color(C'), movement (M), or combinations of these.

Content: anatomy (An), blood (Bl), Clouds (Cl), Fire (Fi), Geography (Ge), Nature (Na), and so forth.

Popularity: whether the response is a popular (P) or an original (One).

The number of responses in each category and certain ratios computed from them guide the interpretation of the test protocol of the whole.

For example, several good “whole” (W) responses are considered indicative of integrated or organised thinking, where as color responses suggest emotionality and impulsivity; many detailed responses indicate compulsivity; white-space responses point to oppositional tendencies; and movement responses reveal imagination.

The ratio of the number of human movement responses to the number of color responses (experience balance) is said to be related to the degree to which a person is thought-minded rather than action oriented.

The ratio of the number of form responses to the number of color responses is an index of the extent to which the respondent is controlled by cognition rather than emotion.

Also important in evaluating Rorschach protocol is the accuracy of responses, that is, how well the responses fit the respective parts of the blots (good, poor, an indeterminate).

Delays in responding (Reaction Time) may be interpreted as anxiety, small number of color and movement responses as depression, and several shading responses as self-control. Many original responses having poor form and other indicators of confused thinking suggest a psychotic process.

One of the most reliable scores on the Rorschach, and a rough index of mental ability, is a simple count of the total number of responses to the ten ink blots.

Responses may also be interpreted in terms of content, but the process is very subjective. For example unreal characters such as ghosts and clowns are interpreted as indicative of an inability to identify with real people, and mask are interpreted as role playing to avoid exposure. Food is interpreted as dependency needs or emotional hunger, death as loneliness and depression, and eyes as sensitivity to criticism.

Considering the length of time required to administer and score the test, it is unsatisfactory when judged by conventional psychometric criteria. But still it remains popular among clinical psychologists and psychiatrists.

4.3.2 Holtz Ink Blot Technique

Holtzman Ink Blot Test (HIT)

The Holtzman Inkblot Technique (HIT) is a projective personality assessment test for persons ages five and above. The main purpose of this test is to assess personality structure of a subject. It is also used as a diagnostic test particularly assessing schizophrenia, depression, addiction and personality disorders.

This test requires a clinically trained examiner. The HIT should be administered and interpreted by a trained psychologist, psychiatrist, or appropriately trained mental health professional.

The HIT, developed by psychologist Wayne Holtzman and colleagues, was introduced in 1961. The test was designed to overcome some of the deficiencies of the Rorschach Inkblot Test.

The Holtzman is a standardised measurement with clearly defined objective scoring criteria. The HIT consists of 45 inkblots. The test administrator, or examiner, has a stack of 47 cards with inkblots (45 test cards and 2 practice cards) face down in front of him or her. The examiner hands each card to the subject and asks the test subject what he or she sees in the inkblot. Only one response per inkblot is requested. Occasionally, the examiner may ask the test subject to clarify or elaborate on a response.

The Administration of the HIT typically takes 50-80 minutes. The HIT is then scored against 22 personality-related characteristics.

The HIT can also be administered in a group setting. In group testing, 30-45 inkblots are projected onto a screen and test subjects provide written responses to each inkblot.

Holtz Ink Blot Technique (HIT) consists of two parallel forms of HIT (A and B) and has 45 blots each, and the examinee is limited to one response per blot. Each of the blots was selected on the basis of high split half reliability and an ability to differentiate between normal and pathological responses.

The HIT blots are more varied than those on the Rorschach: some are asymmetrical, and some have colors and different visual textures. The HIT can be scored on the 22 response categories developed by computer analysis of hundreds of test protocols. The percentile norms for these 22 scores are based on eight groups of people, normal and pathological, ranging in age from 5 years to adulthood.

The procedures for constructing and standardising the HIT were more like those for a personality inventory than other projective techniques, and hence its reliability is higher than that of Rorschach.

Self Assessment Questions

1) What is meant by ink blot tests?

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2) Describe the Rorschach Test.

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3) What is the criticism against the Rorschach Test?

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4) How is the scoring done on Rorschach cards?

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5) Describe Holtzman inkblot test. In what these are different from the Rorschach test?

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6) Describe the Holtzman Inkblot test and how is the scoring done for this test?

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4.4 APPERCEPTION TEST

Let us first understand what is apperception. It refers to the conscious perception with full awareness. It is the process of understanding by which newly observed qualities of an object are related to past experience. This term apperception was introduced by Leibniz, for the mind's reflective thinking and apprehension of its own states. Kant has put forward two types of apperception viz., (i) empirical apperception and (ii) transcendental apperception. While the former refers to the ordinary consciousness, changing self etc., the latter refers to consciousness that unifies experience as that of one subject and is thereby the foundation of both experience and thought.

Less structured than word associations and incomplete sentences but more structured than ink blots are pictures or other materials about which the respondent is asked to tell a story. The majority of these *Apperception Test* employ pictures of people, or animals as stimuli, but one (the hand test) is composed of pictures of hands and another (the Auditory Apperception Test) consists of auditory stimuli. Nearly all apperception test call for open ended response, but at least one (the Iowa Picture Interpretation) has a multiple choice format. Directions for the various picture-story tests are similar: the examinees are asked to tell the story about the picture, including what is going on at the moment, what led up to it, and what the outcome might be.

4.4.1 Thematic Apperception Test (TAT)

The test is based on Murray's Need theory, and is developed by Morgan & Murray (1935). TAT consists of 30 black and white picture cards (four overlapping sets of nineteen cards, each for boys, girls, men, and women) depicting people in ambiguous situations, plus one blank card. The usual procedure for administering the TAT begins by asking the examinee to tell a complete story about each of the 10 or so picture cards selected as appropriate for his or her age or sex. The examinees are asked to devote approximately 5 minutes to each story, telling what is going on now, what thoughts and feelings the people in the story have, what events have led up to the situation, and how it will turn out. For example, one of the pictures shows a young woman in the foreground and a weird old woman with a shawl over her head grimacing in the background. The following story was told by a young college woman in response to this picture:

This is the woman who has been quiet troubled by memories of a mother she was resentful towards. She has feelings of sorrow for the way she treated her mother; her memories of her mother plague her. These feelings seemed to be increasing as she grows older and sees her own children treating her the same way as she treated her mother. She tries to convey the feeling to her children, but does not succeed in changing their attitudes. She is living her past in her present, because the feeling of sorrow and guilt is reinforced by the way her children are treating her.

From stories such as this, a skilled examiner obtains information about the dominant needs, emotions, sentiments, complexes, and conflicts of the story teller and the pressures to which he/she is subjected. As revealed by this story, responses to TAT pictures can be especially useful in understanding the relationships and difficulties between a person and his or her parents.

When interpreting TAT stories, it is assumed that respondents project their own needs, desires and conflicts into the stories and characters. Interpretation of the stories is a fairly subjective, impressionistic process centering on an analysis of the needs and personality of the main character (*hero/heroine*), who presumably represents the examinee, and the environmental forces (*press*) impinging on the main character.

The frequency, intensity and the duration of the story are all taken into the account in the interpretation. The following TAT responses are considered indicative of mental disorders of various kinds:

- slowness or delays in responding may indicate depression;

- stories by men that involved negative comments about women or affection for other man may point to homosexuality;
- over cautiousness and preoccupation with details are suggestive of obsessive compulsive disorder.

Although the usual methods of scoring and interpreting TAT stories are highly impressionistic, scores determined by one of the more systematic procedures are fairly reliable and can be interpreted in terms of norms based on standardisation studies (Bellack, 1993). Asking a person to tell stories about pictures would also seem to have potentially greater validity than asking for responses for ink blots. The content of TAT stories is influenced by the particular environmental context in which the test is taken, and the test does not always differentiate between normal and mentally disordered person (Eron, 1950),

The TAT has been used with a range of ethnic and chronological age groups, and various modifications have been constructed for Blacks, children, and older adults.

4.4.2 Senior Apperception Technique (SAT)

The 16 stimulus pictures on this test, which was designed specifically for older adults, reflect themes of loneliness, uselessness, illness, helplessness, and lowered self-esteem, in addition to positive and happier situations. As in the case of the Gerontological Apperception Test (Wolk and Wolk, 1971), a similar instrument, responses to the pictures on the Senior Apperception Technique reflect serious concerns over health, getting along with other people and being placed in a nursing or retirement home. Both tests have been criticized for inadequate norms and possible stereotyping of the elderly.

4.4.3 Children Apperception Test (CAT)

The Children's Apperception Test (CAT) is a projective personality test used to assess individual variations in children's responses to standardised stimuli presented in the form of pictures of animals in common social situations.

The main purpose of CAT is to assess personality, level of maturity, and, often, psychological health of the children. The theory is that a child's responses to a series of drawings of animals in familiar situations are likely to reveal significant aspects of a child's personality. Some of these dimensions of personality include level of reality testing and judgment, control and regulation of drives, defenses, conflicts, and level of autonomy.

The CAT, developed by Bellak and Bellak (1949), is based on the adult Thematic Apperception Test. The TAT, created by psychologist Henry A. Murray uses a standard series of 31 picture cards in assessing perception of interpersonal relationships. The cards, which portray humans in a variety of common situations, are used to make children tell stories about relationships or social situations. The obtained responses are analysed and the personality of the child is delineated which may consist of dominant drives, emotions, sentiments, conflicts and complexes. The examiner summarizes and interprets the stories in light of certain common psychological themes.

In creating the original CAT, animal figures were used instead of the human figures depicted in the TAT because it was assumed that children from three to ten years of age would identify more easily with drawings of animals.

The original CAT consisted of ten cards depicting animal (CAT-A) figures in human social settings. The Bellaks later developed the CAT-H, which included human figures, for use in children who, for a variety of reasons, identified more closely with human rather than animal figures. A supplement to the CAT (the CAT-S), which included pictures of children in common family situations, was created to elicit specific rather than universal responses.

Like the TAT and the Rorschach inkblot test, the CAT is a type of personality assessment instrument known as a projective test. The term projective refers to a concept originated by Sigmund Freud. In Freud's theory, unconscious motives control much of human behaviour. Projection is a psychological mechanism by which a person unconsciously projects inner feelings onto the external world, then imagines those feelings are being expressed by the external world toward him or herself.

As opposed to cognitive tests, which use intellectual and logical problems to measure what an individual knows about the world, projective assessments such as the CAT are designed to be open-ended and to encourage free expression of thoughts and feelings, thereby revealing how an individual thinks and feels.

The CAT, which takes 20–45 minutes to administer, is conducted by a trained professional, a psychologist, in a clinical, research, or educational setting. The test may be used directly in therapy or as a play technique in other settings.

Self Assessment Questions

1) What do you mean by apperception?

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2) Describe the Thematic Apperception Test.

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3) What theory is TAT based on?

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4) What are the other apperception tests available?

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5) Discuss the Children Apperception Test.

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6) Discuss Senior Apperception Test.

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7) On what criteria are the stories interpreted on TAT cards?

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4.5 LET US SUM UP

Self-report assessment techniques are of two general types: single trait tests and multidimensional tests. The former measure a particular aspect of personality, while as the latter, measures several aspects of personality at once and thus provides a more comprehensive assessment of the respondent's make-up. The MMPI, the most commonly used multi trait scale for diagnostic purpose. Self-report are objective in that people have minimal freedom in responding to test items and scoring procedures are not influenced by personal or theoretical bias. Potential problems inherent in self-report tests include deliberate deception(faking good or bad), social desirability bias, and response sets. Projective techniques, like inkblot tests and apperception tests, attempt to probe unconscious aspects of personality by having people project their feelings, needs, and values into their

interpretation of ambiguous stimuli. Such tests have less likelihood of respondent deception and are sensitive to unconscious features of personality dynamics. Apperception tests have been modified for elderly group as well as for children.

4.6 UNIT END QUESTIONS

- 1) Discuss the relevance of MMPI-2 as a diagnostic tool.
- 2) What are the modifications done on TAT?
- 3) Give a comparative account of Rorschach with TAT.
- 4) Discuss the Apperception concept and the related tests.
- 5) What are the uses of Apperception Tests.
- 6) What are the unique features of Children's Apperception Test?

4.7 GLOSSARY

Millon Clinical Multiaxial Inventory :	An objective test of personality specifically designed to assist psychologists in diagnosing various disorders.
MMPI :	A widely used objective test based on empirical keying.
NEO Personality Inventory (NEO-PI) :	An objective measure of personality designed to assess individual's relative standing on each of the "big five" dimensions of personality.
Rorschach Test :	A widely used projective of personality in which individuals are asked to describe what they see in a series of inkblots.
Thematic Apperception Test (TAT) :	A psychological test used to assess individual differences in several different motives (e.g., achievement motivation, power motivation).

4.8 SUGGESTED READINGS AND REFERENCES

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